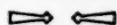


The Speech Teacher

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The SPEECH TEACHER

Vol. IX, No. 3

September, 1960

SPEECH EDUCATION IN THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS OF ILLINOIS*

George T. Wilkins

SPEECH is the most important of all means of communication. In the great arena of politics, government, and in the expression of our democratic rights, speech is also most important. Good speech is essential to participation in a democracy. It involves platform appearances and interviews of candidates for office, radio and television appearances, as well as debate and exposition, to mention only a few of its uses. But even a hundred-fold more essential are the conversations a public official has with his constituents. The average citizen also relies upon clarity, forcefulness, and thoroughness in speech, as he exchanges his ideas and opinions with his neighbors and friends. We should, therefore, be aware of the necessity for a thorough program of speech education as a fundamental of education in a democracy.

*The article consists of excerpts from the keynote address of this title, given by Mr. Wilkins at the annual meeting of the Illinois Speech Association, held at Normal, Illinois, November 6, 1959.

Mr. Wilkins is the Superintendent of Public Instruction of the State of Illinois. He was elected to this office in 1958. His appearance and speech before the Illinois Speech Association are indicative of his interest in the field of speech throughout his career as an administrator and in his present office. He and the members of his staff are sponsoring revisions in the Language Arts Curriculum Guides in the state, and are cooperating with the ISA in preparing a bulletin containing suggested functional speech programs.

No obligation of our public schools merits greater emphasis.

Speech, or oral communication, is, of course, the most important of all communication skills. Speech reaches beyond oral expression only. It is an instrument of thinking. It is a means of exchanging thoughts and ideas. Speech is the most important instrument in the growth of culture. Speech is basic to the development of literature. All written expression develops out of oral expression.

Schools today are greatly concerned with the growth and development of happy, wholesome, and well-rounded personalities in children. But nothing is more fundamental to personality than is speech. How can the child with defective speech fail to have difficulties in learning to read or spell? Note the primary teacher struggling to help the child develop "a strong voice", "a pleasing voice" or "better enunciation, voice quality, or inflection." The teacher knows that speech is a tool for developing personality as well as for up-grading all other communication skills.

As educators, we often talk about the "total child," or of "meeting the total needs of the child." We are concerned with all phases: his physical fitness, his social adjustment, his emotional stabil-

ity, his spiritual welfare, and his mental growth. Speech—good speech is a prime essential of all five of these important phases. There is no phase of life, of education, of personal development where speech is not a primary consideration.

I, therefore, am most interested that speech find its place in all phases of the educational program. In the speech department—or course—but also in the science laboratory, the social science classroom, the third grade—yes, *at every grade level and in every classroom.*

I am interested in good programs of dramatics, forensics, radio and television, but I am even more interested in how to develop good and pleasing speech in recitation and in conversation. I am interested in good speech departments in every high school, but I am just as interested in properly designed curricula that provide for the speech needs of primary children. I am greatly interested in providing enriched programs for those with unusual talents in any phase of speech.

I am interested in seeing that all teachers in our schools have sufficient training in subject-matter majors and minors, and in the science of education and in understanding children and the learning process—but I also would like to see every teacher of children equipped in the fundamentals of speech and in the art of speech education. I do not ask that all teachers be speech specialists—but I would like to see every teacher better trained and equipped to help children develop and use this most important of all the communication skills—their speech.

A properly conducted speech class develops social skills and the personality of the individual students. Group activities in speech give opportunities for students to plan, organize, write nec-

essary outlines and scripts, as well as prepare the facilities to carry out such projects. . . . Well conducted speech courses provide training and development in the social skills and orientation to group situations. I know that a number of high schools have freshman courses in social studies and orientation. In my opinion, however, a well conducted speech class can fulfill all the functions and purposes of such a class in social development.

I, therefore, commend the speech teachers not only for the outstanding job that they do in developing speech skills but for the outstanding results they bring about in developing social skills which lead to the development of a better personality. They further give valuable training in group dynamics and the ability to organize materials and do practical things.

It is not my purpose today to tell you, the experts, what a good speech program is, or how it should be done. That is your job. But I do want to stress my own convictions on the importance of good and thorough and far-reaching programs at all age and grade levels. I want to invite you to draw up and present blueprints and specifications for better speech, better speech education, and for careful integration of speech in all phases of the curricula. There is much to be done. It involves pronunciation, fluency, voice quality, clarity of expression and charm. It includes oral communication both from the learning and teaching viewpoints.

I cannot appear before this group without a comment on speech correction. I have carefully watched the development of this service. The first public school speech correction class in Illinois was established at Alton in Madison County, which I had the privilege to serve as County Superintendent. One

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year after the legislation was passed in 1945 I established the speech correction service in the City of Madison, in Madison County. This year (1960) our office reimbursed public school districts for part of the costs of over 450 trained speech correctionists serving over 30,000 children. I hope to see the day that we have 1500 speech correctionists in Illinois. Over a million dollars of State funds encourages school districts to provide these services. But there is work to be done. Today two-thirds of the children in Illinois schools needing speech correction do not have it available. Many counties do not have a single correctionist.

In conclusion I would like to solicit your help. I have tried to indicate my

interest in your work. Therefore, I ask you to look carefully at the children and youth, as well as the schools of Illinois. You who should lead in the evaluation and in the maintenance of speech services in Illinois schools, you are urged to formulate and make suggestions for improvements. They may pertain to legislation, to teacher education, to curriculum development, to integration with other phases of the education process or any other phases of the program. Please present them to me. I may not agree in all respects but I promise you honest consideration. I pledge to do my very best to help to realize all objectives that are in the interests of children and that are based on defensible standards and that improve the pattern of our schools.

AN EVALUATION OF HIGH SCHOOL SPEECH TRAINING IN WASHINGTON

Oliver W. Nelson

I

AS teachers of speech we share with the National Council of Teachers of English the conviction that "No aspect of the curriculum is more important to the schools of a democracy than the teaching of speech."¹ We believe that effective, responsible speaking and listening are essential to the optimal development of the individual and to the welfare of society. And we are convinced that, ordinarily, such abilities are not developed by chance but are the result of intelligent, specific guidance and instruction in the various aspects of speaking and listening. In the interest of encouraging the improvement of speech education many of us believe that it is advisable, if not necessary, to examine periodically the extent and quality of speech instruction being provided in our schools. It was this thought that prompted the study reported in this paper: an inquiry into the nature of speech education of Washington State high schools.

A review of representative courses of study, selected at random, indicates that most high schools in Washington, at

The author reports recent findings on the status of speech training in high schools in Washington, where he has been a leader in speech education for many years. He has also been active in the work of the Western Speech Association and the secondary school interest groups of the SAA. He is Associate Professor of Speech at the University of Washington (Seattle), where he completed his Ph.D. in 1949.

¹ *The English Language Arts in the Secondary Schools*, National Council of Teachers of English (New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1956), p. 203.

least theoretically, are making provision for the speech training of their pupils. Such training is offered either through English, language arts, specific speech or drama courses, extra-curricular activities or a combination of any of the foregoing. There is reason to assume that most high school administrators in Washington State desire that every child under their jurisdiction receive speech training commensurate with his needs and capacities and the quality of speech instruction compare favorably with that of the best teaching occurring in other areas of learning.²

But how well are the high schools of the state of Washington actually providing for the speech needs of their pupils? To what extent is speech training being *received* by all pupils and what is the nature and quality of speech instruction? The usual method of securing answers to such questions is to make inquiry of the schools themselves. However, figures produced by such an approach suggest *what was given or planned*. They do not tell us *what was achieved—what got through to the student*. It was with the latter factor that the present study was chiefly concerned. Specifically, the study sought to determine the extent and nature of secondary school speech training received by a selected group of Washington high school graduates. It was believed that this particular approach would not only

² Oliver W. Nelson, "Speech in the Secondary School," XXI, *Western Speech* (Fall, 1957), 222-226.

produce useful information for evaluating present speech education practices in Washington high schools, but would also suggest a procedure for carrying out similar evaluations in other parts of the country.

II

A two-page questionnaire³ was employed for securing the information desired in this study. Copies of the questionnaire were distributed to 1300 high school graduates enrolled as freshmen in beginning speech courses at four major state institutions of higher learning in the state of Washington, during the fall and winter quarters of the 1958-59 school year. The usual precautions were taken to encourage an acceptable degree of validity in responses. For example, prior to distribution, the questionnaire was tested for clarity and answerability. A set of procedures for administering the questionnaires was given to each of the instructors whose classes comprised the survey group. Subjects were told that their participation in the project had no bearing upon their standing in the course. All responses were kept anonymous and those from students whose high school graduation antedated 1957 were eliminated from the study.

III

Of the 1300 questionnaires distributed, 1243 (95.6 per cent) were returned. Of these, 1087 were from graduates of Washington high schools. The figure of 1087, therefore, constituted the general base from which all computations have been made in this investigation. This number was assumed to be an adequately representative sample of the population this survey wished to poll.

³ Available at the Department of Speech, University of Washington, Seattle 5, Washington.

Of the 1087 responses, 7.2 per cent were from graduates of small (less than 200) high schools; 19 per cent from graduates of medium-size schools (200-599); and 73.8 per cent of the replies were from graduates of large high schools (over 600). Of the 284 high schools in the state of Washington, 71 per cent were represented in this survey. Specifically, 41.8 per cent of all small high schools, 91.4 per cent of all medium-size schools and 93 per cent of all large high schools were represented. In addition, every geographic section of the state was accounted for, with the Puget Sound region contributing the greatest number of respondents.

IV

Let it be remembered that the questionnaire clearly defined "speech training" as "specific instruction and guidance in speaking, not merely opportunities for or experiences in speaking." With this definition in mind, 529 or 48.6 per cent of the respondents reported having had some type of speech training in high school, while 558 or 51.4 per cent reported having had no speech training whatsoever. This finding should not necessarily be interpreted to mean that no speech training was offered in all those high schools represented by subjects reporting *no speech training*. As a matter of fact, a study of the responses of subjects who had attended the same schools indicated that, in many instances, such schools were pictured as giving speech training to some students and no training to others. This inconsistency suggests (1) that speech training may have been offered as an elective, (2) that some English language arts teachers emphasized speech while others did not, and/or (3) that speech may have been taught in such a

manner that some pupils did not recognize it as such.

Before proceeding further with the results of the investigation, it should be pointed out that the factor of school size was included in the basic design of the study. However, for the purposes of the present report this variable was not considered sufficiently important to be included in the analysis of findings. Other more generally significant factors claim our attention here.

Previous surveys of high school speech training have been confined largely to that given in speech courses.⁴ The present investigation was not so limited. Responses regarding speech training were obtained in five different categories: (1) English or language arts, (2) speech, (3) drama, (4) combination, such as English and speech, English and drama or English-speech-drama, and (5) other courses, such as social studies. Significant findings regarding type of course in which speech training was received are presented in Table I.

TABLE I
TYPE OF COURSE IN WHICH TRAINING
WAS RECEIVED

| Course(s) | Number Respondents Reporting | Percentage |
|----------------|---------------------------------|------------|
| English (L.A.) | 187 | 35.5 |
| Speech | 167 | 31.5 |
| Drama | 33 | 6.2 |
| Combination | 118 | 22.3 |
| Others | 24 | 4.5 |

From the foregoing table one observes that while English or language arts accounted for the speech training of more pupils than any other type of course, over 50 per cent of the respondents who received speech training, did so in either speech or English courses or both.

The next question in the inquiry sought to determine the grade level(s)

⁴ Mary Elizabeth Akams, *A Survey of Speech Education in the State of Washington*, unpublished Master's Thesis, Western Washington College, 1957.

at which speech training was received. Although it is possible that speech training could have been received in any one of thirteen grade levels or grade level combinations, only six were found to apply to respondents of this survey. These were grades 9, 9-12, 10, 11, 11-12 and 12. Of these six levels it was found that speech training of respondents tended to occur more frequently at the 11th and/or 12th grades than at any other levels, and least frequently at 9th and 10th grades.

Another factor believed critical to adequate speech training in secondary schools is the length of time which students are exposed to such training. Table II provides the basic findings on this question.

TABLE II

| LENGTH OF TIME SPEECH TRAINING RECEIVED Time | Number | Per Cent |
|---|--------|----------|
| Less than 1 semester | 99 | 18.8 |
| 1 semester | 187 | 35.5 |
| 1 year | 151 | 28.5 |
| 2 or more years | 92 | 17.4 |

Although 80 per cent of all YES respondents reported having received one or more semesters of speech training, it is particularly significant that nearly 19 per cent reported having had less than one semester of speech training. This is a slightly higher percentage than that noted for "two or more years of training," and if coupled with that of the one-semester category, the result constitutes over half of the YES respondents. Thus when the latter figure is combined with the 51.4 per cent representing NO respondents, one finds that *approximately 70 per cent of the subjects sampled here received either no speech training whatsoever or not more than one semester of training in their entire high school careers.*

An equally important question relat-

ing to the nature of high school speech training concerns the kinds of speech activity in which guidance and instruction are received. Responses to the inquiry on this point are summarized in Table III where seven most common speech activities are ranked in terms of their frequency of citation and in relation to types of course in which the activities were presented.

Table III indicates that by a wide margin more of the respondents have had training in public speaking than in

was asked to indicate the activity (ies) in which he received *most* instruction. Table IV gives ranked answers, together with their frequency of mention.

It is evident that public speaking was not only the activity in which respondents most frequently had instruction, it was also the activity in which they had the greatest amount of instruction.

Thus far we have been considering the *kinds* and *amount* of speech training received in high school through regularly organized courses. Question 7 of the

TABLE III
RANKING OF SPEECH ACTIVITIES IN RELATION TO TYPES OF COURSES

| Course(s) | Pub. Sp. | Debate | Forms of Speech Activity | | | Drama | Conv. |
|--------------|----------|--------|--------------------------|-------|------|-------|-------|
| | | | Oral Int. | Disc. | P.P. | | |
| English | | | | | | | |
| (Lang. Arts) | 1 | 6 | 4 | 2 | 3 | 7 | 5 |
| Speech | 1 | 2 | 4 | 3 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| Drama | 2 | 7 | 4 | 4 | 6 | 1 | 3 |
| Combination | 1 | 6 | 5 | 3 | 3 | 2 | 7 |
| Others | 3 | 6 | 5 | 4 | 1 | 2 | 5 |
| Overall | 1 | 6 | 5 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 7 |

any other speech activity. Although ranking sixth and seventh, debate and conversation actually ran far behind in frequency of mention. From the above data one observes little significant difference in the stresses given to various speech activities by English, speech and combination of English and speech courses.

While the above table reports the frequency of mention of various speech activities, Table IV provides information on the *relative amount* of instruction received in these activities. The respondent

TABLE IV
COMPARISON OF AMOUNT OF INSTRUCTION RECEIVED
IN VARIOUS SPEECH ACTIVITIES

| Rank | Speech Activity | Frequency of Mention |
|------|-------------------------|-------------------------|
| 1 | Public Speaking | 237 |
| 2 | Dramatics | 100 |
| 3 | Parliamentary Procedure | 53 |
| 4 | Debate | 47 |
| 5 | Oral Interpretation | 46 |
| 6 | Discussion | 45 |
| 7 | Conversation | 22 |

questionnaire sought information regarding the *quality of instruction*. Based on 500 replies, results of the survey showed 23 per cent of the respondents considered their speech instruction equal to the *best* instruction received in other high school subjects; 68 per cent considered it equal to the *average*; 9 per cent considered it equal to the *poorest* instruction received in other subjects. It is useful to discover the relation of quality rating to type of course in which instruction was received. Information on this point is given in Table V.

Table V suggests that *superior* quality of speech instruction was more frequently associated with training received in combination of both English and speech courses than with any single course considered here. Significantly, the lowest percentage of *Best* and the highest percentage of *Poor* instruction were registered under English and language arts. However, regardless of type of

TABLE V
RELATION OF QUALITY OF INSTRUCTION TO TYPE OF COURSE

| Course(s) | Best | | | Average | | | Poor | | |
|----------------|------|------|------|---------|----|------|------|------|------|
| | N | % | Rank | N | % | Rank | N | % | Rank |
| English (L.A.) | 23 | 13.4 | 5 | 129 | 75 | 2 | 20 | 11.6 | 1 |
| Speech | 42 | 26 | 3 | 104 | 65 | 3 | 16 | 9 | 2 |
| Drama | 10 | 31 | 2 | 20 | 63 | 4 | 2 | 6 | 4 |
| Combination | 36 | 34 | 1 | 61 | 59 | 5 | 7 | 7 | 3 |
| Others | 3 | 17 | 4 | 13 | 77 | 1 | 1 | 6 | 4 |

course in which instruction was given, the quality of instruction received by respondents in this survey tended to be characterized as *Average*.

Although regular curricular channels normally furnish the basic speech instruction in secondary schools, extra-curricular activities often comprise valuable sources of speech training. This study found that approximately one-fourth of all subjects had participated in some type of extra-curricular speech activity. For example, of the 529 subjects who reported having some type of speech training in high school, 15 per cent received some of it through some form of student leadership activity, 12 per cent through plays, 5 per cent through debate, 4 per cent through other miscellaneous activities, such as assemblies, community forums, speech contests, and 13 per cent received some training through a combination of two

Well—Satisfactorily—the degree to which they felt their high school speech training had helped to prepare them for life and work in college. Eighteen per cent of the 500 who replied to this question stated that their training was *wholly inadequate*, 39 per cent regarded it as *fair* and 43 per cent considered their training as *satisfactory*. Further analysis of these responses is provided in Tables VI and VII. In Table VI *all* ratings are viewed in relation to type of course in which instruction was received. In Table VII percentages of *inadequate* and *satisfactory* ratings are considered in relation to percentages of total sample.

From the above data one might infer that speech instruction received through a combination of English and speech courses is more likely to help prepare high school students for work in college than instruction given in any individual course considered here and that speech

TABLE VI
EVALUATION OF TRAINING IN TERMS OF TYPES OF COURSE

| Course(s) | Wholly Inadeq. | | | Fairly Well | | | Satisfactory | | |
|----------------|----------------|----|---|-------------|----|---|--------------|----|---|
| | N | % | R | N | % | R | N | % | R |
| English (L.A.) | 49 | 28 | 1 | 68 | 39 | 2 | 57 | 33 | 4 |
| Speech | 19 | 12 | 2 | 69 | 42 | 1 | 75 | 46 | 3 |
| Drama | 4 | 12 | 2 | 13 | 38 | 3 | 17 | 50 | 2 |
| Combination | 13 | 11 | 4 | 43 | 36 | 4 | 63 | 53 | 1 |

or more of the foregoing. Length of time respondents remained in any one of their respective activities ranged from less than one semester to three years, with the mean being one year.

Subjects were also asked to rate on a scale of: *Wholly Inadequately—Fairly*

instruction received in English language arts alone is least likely to help prepare students for college work.

Data provided in Table VII would appear to confirm the inferences drawn from Table VI. Note that while "combination" instruction comprised approxi-

TABLE VII
COMPARISON OF PERCENTAGES OF "INADEQUATE" AND "SATISFACTORY" REPLIES TO
THOSE OF TOTAL SAMPLE

| Course(s) | Per cent of total sample | Per cent of "wholly inadeq." replies | Per cent of "satisfactory" replies |
|----------------|-----------------------------|--|--|
| English (L.A.) | 35.5 | 57.5 | 27 |
| Speech | 33 | 22.5 | 35 |
| Drama | 7 | 5 | 8 |
| Combination | 24.5 | 15 | 30 |

mately 25 per cent of the sample, it accounted for only 15 per cent of "wholly inadequate" and 30 per cent of "satisfactory" replies. On the other hand, while "English" instruction comprised nearly 36 per cent of the total sample, it accounted for approximately 58 per cent of the "wholly inadequate" and only 27 per cent of the "satisfactory" replies.

Finally, subjects of the survey who had rated their speech preparation for college as either *fair* or *inadequate* were asked to state what they believed to be the reason(s) for such weaknesses. It was found that 95 per cent of the replies could be categorized under seven basic reasons. These are listed in Table VIII, with their frequencies and corresponding ranks.

It is quite evident in the above table that the first three reasons were considered the major obstacles to adequate speech preparation for college life. How these reasons rank in relation to the kind of course in which the speech training was received may be seen in Table IX.

With respect to the preceding table it should be pointed out that while 37 per cent of the students in the *Combination* category and 40 per cent in those in the *Speech* category offered adverse criticism of speech instruction received in high school, over 60 per cent of the students in the *English language arts* category adversely criticised their high school speech training. Equally significant, perhaps, are the findings that

TABLE VIII
REASONS FOR INADEQUATE PREPARATION

| Reason | Frequency | Rank |
|--|-----------|------|
| Insufficient time given to speech in the curriculum or classwork | 87 | 2 |
| Poor instruction (poor planning, inadequate criticism, guidance) | 100 | 1 |
| Limited coverage (not geared to pupil needs) | 70 | 3 |
| Class too large (not enough individual attention) | 10 | 4 |
| Poor pupil attitude (fear, indifference, lack of motivation) | 4 | 6 |
| Too general (not geared to real life situations) | 10 | 4 |
| Too few opportunities to speak | 4 | 6 |

TABLE IX
REASONS FOR POOR PREPARATION VIEWED IN RELATION TO TYPE OF COURSE

| Reason | English—N 187* | | Speech—N 167* | | Combination N 118* | |
|-----------------------------------|----------------|------|---------------|------|--------------------|------|
| | Freq. | Rank | Freq. | Rank | Freq. | Rank |
| Insufficient time given to speech | 55 | 1 | 6 | 3 | 13 | 2 |
| Poor instruction | 44 | 2 | 33 | 1 | 20 | 1 |
| Limited coverage | 16 | 3 | 28 | 2 | 11 | 3 |
| Totals | 115** | | 67** | | 44** | |

*Total number of respondents in these categories.

**Total number of times three leading reasons were cited.

English courses were most frequently criticised for not giving sufficient time to speech and that both English and speech courses were criticised, though somewhat less frequently, for the poor quality of speech instruction they provided.

V

In summary, this study sought information regarding the extent and quality of speech education in Washington State high schools by means of questionnaires submitted to a selected group of students who had attended these schools. Responses of 1087 high school graduates enrolled as freshmen in four Washington institutions of higher learning provided the data reported here.

Major results of the survey included the following:

1. Forty-eight and six-tenths per cent of the respondents reported they had received speech training in high school.
2. While English or language arts courses accounted for more of the speech training than that of any other single type of course, the combination of English and speech courses was responsible for over 50 per cent of the training received by respondents.
3. Speech training was most frequently received in the 11th and/or 12th grades.
4. One semester was the temporal extent of speech training most commonly received by participants in the survey.
5. Approximately three-fourth of the high school graduates sampled in this study received either no speech training whatsoever or not more than one semester of speech training in their entire high school careers.
6. More subjects had training in public speaking than in any other speech form. They also received a greater amount of training in public speaking than in such forms as discussion, oral interpretation or parliamentary procedure.
7. Regardless of type of course in which instruction was given, the quality of instruction received by the respondents tended to be rated in terms of *averageness*, with greater incidence of *poorest instruction* being associated with that given in English or language arts, and the greater incidence of *best* credited to instruction received from a combination of English and speech courses.
8. One-fourth of the total number responding to the survey reported they had participated in some type of extra-curricular activity in speech, with student government and/or club leadership activities, dramatics and debate accounting for most of it.
9. Only 43 per cent of those who reported having received some speech training in high school believed that the training satisfactorily helped to prepare them for college life. As many as 18 per cent reported that the training was *wholly inadequate*.
10. Speech training received in a combination of speech and English courses tended to be judged a more satisfactory means of preparing students in speech for college life than in any other curricular arrangement.
11. "Poor instruction," "insufficient time given to speech in the curriculum" and "limited coverage" were given as the major reasons for *less than satisfactory* speech training. "Insufficient time given to speech" was the primary reason offered by graduates who had had their speech training in language arts courses.

What conclusions may then be drawn from the foregoing findings? Most certainly many high schools in the state of Washington have been and are provid-

ing excellent instruction in speech. However, this survey would seem to indicate that such training is far from universal. At least it can be said that in many instances what is offered is not getting through to the pupils or is not being recognized as speech training. One may ask at this point: How adequate, if not how substantial, is *unrecognizable speech training*? Most students, I am sure, recall whether they had algebra, history, grammar or chemistry in high school. It is my opinion that a student who has had some substantial instruction in speech will recall this experience also. The fact that over 50 per cent of the graduates sampled in this survey did not have or could not recall having had any speech training poses a serious question regarding the adequacy of speech education in Washington high schools.

Results of the survey raise other equally challenging questions regarding speech education in high schools of Washington.

1. Are 11th and/or 12th grades the most appropriate levels at which to emphasize speech training in high school? Many speech educators recommend that basic speech instruction be offered at the 10th grade level so that its benefits may be enjoyed by the pupil throughout the remainder of his high school years.

2. Is one semester of speech training, the mode discovered by the survey, sufficient for the average high school pupil? I suggest what is needed is a minimum of one semester of basic speech instruction with continuous reinforcing of speech learnings in other classes and activities throughout high school.

3. Is the considerable emphasis apparently given to instruction on the short talk in the pupils' best interests? In the modern world, educational leaders have seen the values of effective con-

versation and group discussion. It is my judgment that a little less emphasis on public speaking and more on conversation and discussion would more adequately meet basic speech needs of youth.

4. What is the significance of the finding that no more than one-fourth of the respondents had participated in extra-curricular speech activities? Is this good? At least until Sputnik, I would have considered this proportion very low.

5. What is the significance of the findings regarding the quality of high school speech instruction? To answer such a question one must first determine what significance, if any, should be attached to *student evaluation of teaching effectiveness*, and specifically to that employed in this study. Certainly no thoughtful investigator would employ student evaluation of instruction as his only or even primary means of appraising teaching effectiveness. He should, nevertheless, consider it one of his valuable sources of information for judging the strengths and weaknesses of an instructional program. It is my judgment that evaluations made by the subjects in the present survey, subjects whom we may presume to be acceptably discerning, deserve our most careful consideration. Certainly instruction which, in this case, has been judged predominantly *average in quality* by the respondents warrants further study with an aim toward its possible improvement.

On the basis of this study's findings it would appear that the teaching of speech has not attained the status of "one of the most important aspects of the curriculum" in the state of Washington. And there are reasons to suspect that this generalization may also apply to high schools in many other parts of the country. Therefore, in the interest of strengthening and extending speech edu-

cation in such schools, as well as in those of the state of Washington, the following recommendations are proposed:

1. Teacher training institutions should examine more carefully their standards for preparation of speech and language arts teachers and make certain that appropriate measures are being taken to select and train superior teachers of these subjects.

2. School administrators should exert every reasonable effort to secure qualified speech and language arts teachers and to help plan and maintain sound, realistic speech programs. Such programs should (a) provide *all* pupils with instruction in basic speaking-listening skills at a point early in their high school careers in a course devoted primarily to improvement of oral communication; (b) provide *all* pupils with

continuous reinforcement of speaking-listening abilities in *all* classes, including English language arts; (c) provide the interested and gifted pupil with opportunities for further speech development through special and advanced courses; and (d) provide for the special needs of children with speech and hearing handicaps.

3. State Offices of Public Instruction should encourage the development of adequate, well administered speech programs and strongly urge the employment of properly prepared and certified speech teachers in secondary schools.

Fulfillment of such recommendations should go far toward bringing the teaching of speech to the position of importance in the curriculum which leaders of the National Council of Teachers of English believe it should have.

THE HIGH SCHOOL SPEECH TEACHER IN MICHIGAN

Fred Alexander and Gordon Thomas

IN an effort to determine just what is the present status of the high school speech teacher and to locate more specifically some of the problems with which he is confronted, we have conducted during the past two years surveys of all Michigan high schools. In both surveys, superintendents were asked to list the speech teachers on their staffs. Questionnaires were then sent to the persons listed by the superintendents. In 1957-58, this questionnaire was relatively extensive, the teacher being asked to check such items as degrees held, institutions granting these degrees, the percent of teaching time spent in speech classes, subjects taught other than speech, extra-curricular speech activities handled, and the types of assistance needed for teaching speech classes or coaching speech activities. Of 762 teachers who were sent questionnaires, 393 or 52% responded.

In 1958-59, the questionnaire was reduced to postcard size with requests for information on types of speech classes taught, percent of teaching time spent in speech classes, extra-curricular speech activities handled, and types of assistance in speech needed. Of 683 persons sent this questionnaire, 213 or 31% responded.

This article, which surveys work being done by high school speech teachers in Michigan, analyzes teacher training, load, and activities. Both authors are Associate Professors in the Speech Department at Michigan State University. Mr. Alexander's Ph.D. was done at Wisconsin (1955); Mr. Thomas completed his Ph.D. at Northwestern (1952).

Specifically these surveys show:

1. A little more than one third of the teachers now instructing in speech at the high school level have earned an M.A. degree or its equivalent. The actual percentage of those teachers surveyed who held an M.A. degree was 38%. These degrees were obtained from a total of thirty-seven different institutions of higher learning.
2. Most speech teachers teach classes in public speaking rather than in the other areas normally identified with speech such as drama, radio, or debate.

Speech teachers were asked to check the types of speech class or classes they were currently teaching. The results are shown in Table I.

TABLE I
TYPES OF SPEECH CLASSES TAUGHT IN
MICHIGAN HIGH SCHOOLS

| Class | Number of Teachers | % of Teachers |
|--------------------------|--------------------|---------------|
| Public Speaking | 163 | 78 |
| Dramatics | 49 | 23 |
| Debate | 40 | 19 |
| Radio and TV | 21 | 10 |
| General and Fundamentals | 13 | 6 |
| No Classes in Speech | 17 | 8 |
| Not Given | 6 | 3 |

These data were further broken down into groupings or combinations of speech classes taught by an individual teacher. These groupings are given in Table II.

3. Almost 50% of the teachers devote less than one-quarter of their teach-

TABLE II
SEPARATE SPEECH CLASSES TAUGHT BY A
SINGLE TEACHER

| Speech Classes | Number of Teachers | % of Teachers |
|--|--------------------|---------------|
| Public speaking classes only | 98 | 50 |
| Public speaking; Dramatics | 21 | 11 |
| Public speaking; Debate | 18 | 9 |
| Public speaking; Radio-TV | 6 | 3 |
| Dramatics classes only | 9 | 5 |
| Radio-TV classes only | 2 | 1 |
| Debate classes only | 6 | 3 |
| Public speaking; Dramatics; Radio-TV | 5 | 3 |
| Public speaking; Radio-TV; Debate | 3 | 2 |
| Public speaking; Dramatics; Debate | 8 | 4 |
| Public speaking; Dramatics; Debate; Radio-TV | 4 | 2 |
| General, Fundamentals, or Integrated Courses | 13 | 6 |
| Miscellaneous | 2 | 1 |

ing time to classes in speech; almost 70% devote less than one-half of their time to speech classes.

Responses to the question concerning percentage of teaching load in speech yields a distribution shown in Table III.

TABLE III
PERCENT OF TEACHING LOAD IN SPEECH

| Percent of Load | Number of Teachers | % of Teachers |
|-----------------|--------------------|---------------|
| 0 | 17 | 8 |
| 1-25 | 66 | 32 |
| 26-50 | 40 | 20 |
| 51-75 | 19 | 9 |
| 76-100 | 38 | 19 |
| Not given | 24 | 11 |

4. The average teacher is responsible for two extra-curricular speech activities in addition to his regular teaching load.

The survey reveals that the number of extra-curricular activities for which each teacher is responsible ranges from zero to six, including in the latter case the directing of six plays. The distribution of the answers to this question is given in Table IV.

TABLE IV
NUMBER OF EXTRA-CURRICULAR SPEECH ACTIVITIES

| Number of Activities | Number of Teachers | % of Teachers |
|----------------------|--------------------|---------------|
| 0 | 21 | 10 |
| 1 | 53 | 25 |
| 2 | 85 | 41 |
| 3 | 33 | 16 |
| 4 | 13 | 6 |
| 5 | 1 | 1 |
| 6 | 1 | 1 |

Two other breakdowns of these data were obtained. Table V shows the percentage of teachers covered by the survey who coached each of the various extra-curricular activities in speech.

TABLE V
EXTRA-CURRICULAR RESPONSIBILITIES OF
SPEECH TEACHERS

| Responsibilities | Number of Teachers | % of Teachers |
|------------------|--------------------|---------------|
| Dramatics | 116 | 56 |
| Forensics | 126 | 60 |
| Debate | 75 | 36 |
| Speakers Bureau | 18 | 9 |
| Assemblies | 8 | 4 |
| None | 21 | 10 |

TABLE VI
TYPES OF SERVICES REQUESTED BY
SPEECH TEACHERS

| Service Requested | Number of Requests |
|--------------------------------|--------------------|
| Drama | |
| Play bibliographies | 33 |
| Other dramatic literature | 9 |
| Production aids | 7 |
| Debate | |
| Resources on debate topic | 19 |
| Coaching problems | 4 |
| Forensics | |
| General resource materials | 24 |
| Recent declamations | 5 |
| Resource material for orations | 11 |
| Interpretation | |
| List of readings | 19 |
| Public Speaking | |
| Recordings of famous speakers | 11 |
| Films on public speaking | 5 |
| Methods of presentation | 5 |
| Radio and Television | |
| Resource materials | 11 |
| Scripts | 6 |
| General | |
| Course outlines | 25 |
| Teaching materials and aids | 9 |
| Audio-Visual aids | 4 |
| Demonstration teams | 4 |
| Assembly programs | 4 |

5. The felt needs and problems of the typical secondary school speech teacher are numerous.

As we have already seen, the curricular and extra-curricular responsibilities of the speech teacher are many and varied. Despite some earnest efforts on our part to prepare the neophyte speech teacher adequately, there are some dangerous assumptions that he can be released to his first year of teaching and be competent to meet any local exigencies. This is

evidenced in the lengthy compilation of calls for assistance uncovered in the survey. These requests are tabulated in Table VI.

These needs undoubtedly are not the same in all parts of the country, but it appears that we should earnestly seek out the professional problems, particularly of our young teachers in the secondary schools, and help them with the most expeditious means at our disposal.

A REPORT ON TEACHER TRAINING IN SPEECH

Kenneth Burns

AS an adviser of students in a teacher training curriculum, and also as teacher of their speech methods course and supervisor of their student teaching, it was only natural for me to study teacher training programs at other institutions during a recent sabbatical leave. I wanted to find out as much as I could about all aspects of these programs in an attempt to serve better my own students.

My travels took me to sixteen different colleges and universities varying in size from small to large. No attempt was made to cover a single geographical area, but observations were made in schools in New York, California, Wisconsin, Iowa, Indiana, and Illinois. In some instances a school was chosen because I had heard of its reputation in the teacher training area, in others I had received invitations to schools from the person in charge of teacher training, and in some cases travel convenience was the deciding factor.

I was able, during my visits, to talk with heads of speech departments, advisers of teacher trainees in speech, supervisors of student teachers, co-operating teachers (the classroom teacher under whose guidance a student teacher

works), students who were doing or about to do their student teaching, and many other persons connected with departments of speech and of education who have a vital interest in the training of teachers.

This paper is a report of some of the things I observed and discussed with those with whom I talked, and includes materials from my own program. It makes no claims to being a survey of the field—the number of schools visited is far too small. It does, however, present what I hope will be an interesting cross-section of practices in teacher training across the country. The paper is divided into three main sections: (1) a description of the speech courses required of the teacher training major, (2) a discussion of his acceptance into student teaching, and (3) a review of some of the procedures followed during the actual student teaching period. A brief conclusion presents some personal reactions to what I saw.

I

Because most high school speech teachers must handle all areas of speech rather than concentrate in one field, the tendency is toward requiring the teacher training majors to take a general speech program rather than one which will make him a specialist in drama, debate, public speaking or whatever. Evidence of this trend toward generalization can best be seen when we note that in fifteen of the schools visited (Teachers Col-

The author, who is Assistant Professor of Education and Speech at the University of Illinois, directs teacher training in speech. He has been an active figure in the Illinois Speech Association; he was a member of the committee surveying secondary school speech in 1958, and is, at present, on the State Curriculum Committee of that Association. His M.A. degree was completed at the University of Iowa (1944) and his Ph.D. at Northwestern (1952).

lege, Columbia, has only a graduate program so cannot be counted here) requirements were found in the following areas: public speaking in all fifteen schools, theatre in thirteen, oral interpretation in twelve, correction in twelve, voice in eleven, radio and television in eight, and the psychology of speech in three.

In the public speaking area a beginning course is almost always required. Most schools also require courses in debate and discussion. Other courses appearing on required lists in this area are advanced public speaking, forensic activities, parliamentary procedure, persuasion, and the history of public address. Many schools do not offer a course titled Fundamentals of Speech, but such a course is required in seven of the schools visited, and for want of a better place to include it, I shall place it in the public speaking area.

Acting, stagecraft, and directing in some combination of courses are the predominant requirements in theatre. Sometimes separate courses in all three will be listed, but in many cases acting and directing or stagecraft and directing will be offered together as a single course. A few schools give credit for participation in theatre productions and courses in theatre practicum appear on some required lists. Definitely in the minority, but present in some few schools are requirements in costuming, make-up, and theatre history.

A single course is the most common requirement in oral interpretation. One or two institutions do require an advanced course and in one school the requirement is twelve hours. Choral speaking is listed only once, and here it is one of four courses from which three must be chosen.

Most often the requirement in speech

correction is a single course which relates the classroom speech teacher to the speech handicapped student. Not enough courses can be required of the general speech teacher trainee to make him a correctionist, but in the few schools which allow students to pick fields of emphasis, correction is one of these fields. In one school, persons whose major is speech correction must do a minimum amount of student teaching in general speech, and in schools where correction is one of the fields of emphasis for the general speech teacher, a minimum number of hours must be done in student teaching in correction. Courses in audiology and audiometry appear infrequently as requirements in this area.

Courses variously titled Voice and Articulation, Voice and Phonetics, Voice and Diction, Voice Training, Voice Science, and Phonetics comprise the requirements in voice. More often than not one course is all that is asked for. In a few schools, students must pass an oral test to prove satisfactory speech before they are accepted in student teaching. If they do not pass this test, course work is prescribed to help eliminate their inadequacy.

Single courses in radio and television, sometimes covering one medium only and sometimes treating of both, and one course in the psychology of speech appear as requirements for the last two areas listed.

The total number of hours required for the teaching major in speech varies with the institution, which in turn sets up its program to meet state certification requirements. Most schools require between thirty and forty semester hours (or up to sixty quarter hours) in speech courses for the major. Within that required number of hours there is interesting flexibility in the stated courses which

must be taken. One school, for example, requires forty-eight quarter hours, and lists the specific courses included. As opposed to this another school requires sixty quarter hours and specifically states courses totalling only twenty hours; the other forty are elected with the consent of the adviser. A common program lists from twelve to fifteen hours in specific course requirements and states that the remaining courses must be chosen from a stated list.

Course requirements aside from those in the major teaching field need not be discussed here. They vary according to the specifications set up for certification and usually include work in the humanities, sciences, physical education, professional education, and a second teaching field. For most speech majors the second teaching field is English. Next to English, a second teaching field in social studies is most common.

One word should be said at this point about the methods course in the subject matter area. Speech methods courses are taught in all but two of the schools visited and the majority of these courses include discussions of educational philosophy as it relates to speech, methods of teaching the several units in a general speech course, methods of teaching the special courses (forensics, dramatics), materials available for teaching (textbooks, visual aids, recorders and recordings, etc.), handling extra-curricular speech activities, and the problems involved in evaluation and grading.

Several of the methods courses also require a certain number of observations to be made by the student prior to his doing his student teaching. These observations, when not handled in the methods course are often a part of some other education course. The purpose of the observations is to make the student aware of the problems he will meet in

teaching, to acquaint him with the high school student, and to familiarize him with techniques of pedagogy. Most instructors speak highly of the importance of observation prior to student teaching. The few students to whom I spoke about the matter were divided in their opinion. Those who did their observation immediately preceding their student teaching seemed highly motivated to learn from them, while those who were participating in this activity a year or more prior to student teaching felt they gained little from it. One institution requires students to spend two hours per week for five weeks in various public schools of the city. From these observations the student then indicates the school in which he would like to do his practice teaching.

II

The pattern of admission to student teaching is quite standard in all of the schools visited. Formal application is usually made in the junior year, and acceptance is contingent on several factors. First the student must meet all of the subject matter requirements discussed above. Next, he must maintain a given scholastic average, usually C or C plus. One school, in the firm belief that only the better students should be considered for teaching, tried to get a grade requirement of B, but failed in the attempt. A certificate indicating that the student is in good physical health is asked for by most public schools accepting student teachers, so health clearance is the third basic requirement.

Most persons to whom I talked stated the belief that some evidence of emotional stability should also be required of all persons applying for student teaching. Nowhere, however, did I find a completely satisfactory answer as to how to discover and eliminate those who are likely to be misfits in the teaching

profession because of some personal or emotional problem. One school requires all of its applicants to take the Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory, and this is probably a step in the right direction. In two or three institutions written recommendations from several members of the speech and/or education departments from whom the student has taken courses are required. These recommendations would indicate emotional problems wherever they had been discovered. One adviser said the only way she could keep a student she felt was emotionally unstable from teaching was to get a written statement from a psychiatrist to that effect. Another adviser said his only recourse was to fail the student in the methods course, which is a pre-requisite to student teaching. This is, by the admission of this adviser not a good way to handle the problem since it involves the subjective judgment of the methods teacher to too great an extent. One or two advisers spoke vehemently to this point, saying they wished they had more power in this area. True, the number of persons who would be barred from student teaching because of emotional problems which would keep them from being effective would be small. However, the feeling is that if we can guide any such person away from teaching and into some other area (where he might make a success) we are doing a service both to the person and the profession. Removing a student from his student teaching after he has proved his inability to handle it is permitted in several schools, but this is obviously an unsatisfactory solution to the problem.

Knowing that practice should be combined with theory, most advisers are interested in having their advisees participate in a variety of extra-curricular speech activities prior to their student teaching. Two or three persons indicated

they would like to be able to demand a given number of hours of such participation as a pre-requisite to acceptance in student teaching, but at no place had a specific program been set up. Many advisers keep track of the extra-curricular work their advisees are doing and are constantly recommending that they get as much actual experience as possible in acting, set-building, costuming, make-up, debate, discussion, open forums, etc., etc., before they begin student teaching.

Once the student has met all of these requirements for acceptance into the student teaching program he is ready for specific assignment. The question of who makes these assignments elicited several different answers.

In many schools the assignments are made through a single office in the College or Department of Education. This method has the advantage of central control and eliminates the necessity of many people making contacts with the same school administrator in order to place persons in different teaching areas. Its big disadvantage is that the person making the assignment usually does not know the student being assigned; in fact, he may not even know the cooperating teacher who is to be in charge of the student. The possibility of personality conflicts between student teacher and cooperating teacher are thus greater than when assignments are made by someone who knows both parties.

Advisers make the assignments in several of the schools, and where these advisers are also the supervisors of the student teaching, this seems to be the best method. The adviser knows his students well; as a supervisor he has become personally acquainted with his cooperating teachers and thus has a better chance of matching persons who will be compatible workers together. He also

can decide whether a student should be placed in a school where he can capitalize on his strong points, or whether he should be placed in a school which has a strong program where he might find his preparation inadequate.

In one city the Board of Education makes the final assignments, and in some schools which take many student teachers one person in the school system acts as student teaching coordinator and it is his job to make specific assignments after he knows how many student teachers will be coming to his school in each subject matter field.

III

The length of the student teaching period varies from a six weeks block-of-time, through a half day for a semester, to full time for a quarter or a semester. In the block-of-time assignment, teaching is highly concentrated over a short period, and for the person who develops slowly this is a distinct disadvantage. For the person who is "teaching ready" (a term which I use but cannot exactly define) there is no problem with block-of-time teaching. Where students are placed in a school for a half day for a semester, the most common plan is that they teach one class in their major field, one class in their minor field (most schools require teaching in both the major and the minor). They spend the other hour helping around the school wherever they are needed. The disadvantages of this plan is that the student teacher does not get acquainted with all of the classes and he does not have the opportunity to learn how to adjust the same material to several different groups; the scope of his teaching under this plan seems too limited. Students who enroll for a full quarter or semester of student teaching seem to have many advantages because of the length of time they are

in the school. However, some to whom I talked, who were working under this system, felt they spent too much time observing the regular classroom teacher or in what they called "busy work" around the school, and that they got little more actual teaching than students who worked for shorter periods. Hours of credit for student teaching vary with the length of the teaching period.

The amount of actual teaching the student does while he is student teaching is influenced by many conditions. In some states (Indiana for example) state law says they must teach a minimum number of hours. In other places, it is up to the co-operating teacher to determine how much teaching the student gets. One problem which arises here is that the good student teacher is likely to get more actual teaching than the weaker one. So that a weak student teacher will not impede the progress of the class, he is permitted only a minimum number of hours of teaching. This is a defensible system and yet it is hard on the student who might, with practice, make greater progress than he is able to make being allowed to do so little teaching. One school, in an effort to see that the student gets a well-rounded experience, requires the keeping of a time card which will show that minimums of 30 hours of observation, 30 hours of actual teaching, 60 hours of activities related to teaching, and 60 hours of preparation for actual teaching are met during the student teaching period.

Another factor which influences the number of hours of actual teaching the student gets is whether or not he is the only student working with the co-operating teacher. In most schools the practice is to place only one student with a co-operating teacher. Some few schools which find it difficult to locate sufficient good co-operating teachers, or

which depend entirely upon laboratory high schools for training their students, are forced to place more than one student per co-operating teacher, and in a few instances they even have to place more than one cadet per class. Although there are obvious disadvantages to this system, it does have one advantage. One student can observe another with the same background he has trying to solve problems in the classroom. He thus more nearly has a "mirror" of himself than he would have by merely observing an experienced teacher. Students can get together to talk about course content, students, and teaching methods in specific situations. Often their combined efforts produce better results than would be gained by a single student teacher in a class. The biggest disadvantage of this system is that the student is able to do fewer hours of actual teaching than when he is the only "extra" in the classroom.

The student teacher in speech is given the opportunity, during his student teaching, to work with as many speech activities as possible. In the classroom he becomes aware of the objectives of the speech course; he learns to present the content of the speech class; he becomes acquainted with teaching aids such as textbooks, tape recorders, permanent recordings, etc.; he gets experience in listening to and evaluating speech performance; in short, he learns to teach speech. In the co-curricular area he may observe or actually work in dramatics and forensics programs. The work in dramatics may be anything from book-holding for a major production to the choosing, casting, and directing of a one-act play of his own. In debate he may coach one team throughout his student teaching period, or he may be called upon to help individual members of all teams with problems of content

or delivery. If the school in which he is teaching participates in speech contests, he may be given the responsibility of coaching selected individual contestants or he may work in cooperation with the regular teacher in preparing contestants for all events. It is certainly to be desired that he get as much experience as he can in both classroom and co-curricular activities. The more this experience involves him directly in the activity rather than having him sit passively as an observer, the better chance he has to cope successfully with the problems which will arise when he becomes a full-fledged teacher with his own speech program.

Throughout the student teaching period, the co-operating teacher observes his work and confers with him after his teaching, suggesting methods of capitalizing on assets and minimizing liabilities. In addition to these observations of the co-operating teacher, he is usually visited by a university supervisor who also serves as a guide to better teaching.

Supervision of student teachers takes a variety of forms. In institutions which have a training school in connection with the university, there is no supervision beside that given by the regular classroom teacher. Some schools use what might be called "generalist" supervisors. This means the supervisor is not trained primarily in the subject matter area, but visits all student teachers in a given school regardless of their subject matter teaching field. In other schools "specialist" supervisors are used. Thus, speech trained people supervise student teachers in speech. Sometimes the supervisors are graduate assistants whose only contact with the student teacher is these supervisory visits. Graduate assistants who do this sort of supervising recognize that it does not offer maximum help to the student teacher. It is indeed dif-

difficult for a stranger to visit a cadet teacher three or four times per semester and make valid judgments of the teaching he sees. A much better system is that used by the schools who employ advisers or methods teachers as supervisors. In several schools the adviser is also the methods teacher and the supervisor. As adviser, he becomes well acquainted with the students prior to their student teaching. As methods teacher he offers suggestions and theory which he can observe the students putting into practice. The longer period of acquaintance with the student, and the additional advantage of working with him in the methods class make these supervisors feel they can be of more help to the student than a generalist supervisor or a graduate assistant who does not know them.

The number of visits the supervisor makes to the student teacher varies from school to school. An average is a visit every two weeks, but some schools which send students out for a whole quarter or semester do not come up to this average. Where the student is out on a bloc-of-time assignment, the supervisor usually plans to stay through the whole day, watching the student teach several different classes. Following each observation it is almost a universal rule that conferences be held with both the student-teacher and the co-operating teacher. Most supervisors make running notes while the student is teaching and these become the basis for the conference which follows. These notes are then usually given to the student for further reference. One interesting innovation I observed was the system of having the student teacher write up the supervisor's visit, telling what he had learned and how the visit had helped him. Visits may be made according to a pre-arranged schedule, or upon invitation of the stu-

dent teacher, or without any previous warning.

Where students are placed close enough to the university so they can easily return to campus, weekly seminars are often held where all the students can get together with the supervisor and discuss their common problems. In at least one institution this seminar is a double session, partly handled by the College of Education (to discuss general problems such as discipline, classroom management, etc.) and partly taken over by the speech supervisor.

Most schools issue regular letter grades for student teaching just as they do for any other course. One difference between student teaching grades and other grades is that most student teaching grades are either A or B. One or two schools defended this system of grading by saying their placement bureaus wouldn't send vacancy notices to students who received C in student teaching. If this system is common throughout the country, administrators who are hiring teachers will not be deceived by the high grades. Several schools said they did give the C grade, but only to indicate very weak work rather than to indicate the "average" we usually associate with this grade. Two schools give only "pass" and "fail" grades. In all schools the grade is arrived at by common consent of the co-operating teacher and the university supervisor. It usually goes into the permanent records under the name of the supervisor. It is common practice that both co-operating teacher and supervisor write recommendations for the student teacher's placement file, and it is felt that these are of much more value than the letter grade issued for the course, as specific strengths and weaknesses can be treated in the recommendation, thus giving administrators and school boards a more nearly accurate picture of the stu-

dent than a single letter grade is able to give.

The whole student teaching experience seems to be effective in direct relation to the status of the co-operating teacher. Where co-operating teachers are paid for their services, given special university benefits such as library privileges and tuition-free summer school, and are treated as an important part of the program, they tend to do a better job than when they are asked to take a student teacher gratis and have little choice as to whether they work in the program or not. Fortunately the latter method is not common, and students return from their student teaching feeling it has been the most important and helpful single course in their college career.

IV

I cannot help but conclude this report with a bit of testimony. Wherever I went I saw dedicated advisers, supervisors, and co-operating teachers—all eager to give students the best possible preparation for their chosen life work as teachers. These people recognize that there are many problems they have not solved in their teacher training programs, but they are bending every effort to eliminate these problems wherever this is possible. Their kindness in letting me visit them and the unselfish way they gave me of their time must also be noted and my thanks expressed. I returned to my own position with renewed enthusiasm for what I feel to be one of the most important jobs a teacher can have—the training of other teachers.

WOOLBERT AS A TEACHER

Maxine M. Trauernicht

The Woolbert classroom, packed to the door and overflowing onto the deep sills of the great windows, was not one of stuffy silence where a speech appeared to come from an automaton; it was the scene of lively participation. . . . He was deftly invigorating, humorous, unsarcastic, unafraid of his convictions, and honest always. . . . We knew that something worthwhile would happen during each hour spent with him. We were loath to miss the eruptive encounters of wit and reasoning. . . . No wonder his classes in persuasion numbered forty to fifty students.¹

These words written by one of his former students, Severina Nelson, characterize a man who was a dominant figure in our profession during the early years of our national association.

Charles Henry Woolbert is quite generally regarded as a modern leader in the field of speech, a great teacher, and one of the outstanding pioneers during a significant transition period in speech education.

Giles Wilkeson Gray has stressed his importance: "There are relatively few people in the field of speech whose philosophies and teachings should be

known to every serious student of the subject. Woolbert is one of these."²

Charles Henry Woolbert was teaching forty years ago many of the principles we teach today. Woolbert's was a relatively short career—lasting only from 1900 to 1929. It seems phenomenal that in so few years a man could have written such a quantity of materials containing so much that is original, forceful and provocative. It is difficult to imagine how he had the time and energy to be the effective teacher he apparently was, to assume leadership in an infant speech organization, and to give to his profession widely used texts as well as profound and numerous journal articles. It is of course true that not all of what Woolbert wrote was original with him. Actually there are few new things in the world. It is only by rearranging, changing and making new applications that principles and techniques become new and significant. Ingersoll once said:

Shakespeare found nearly all of his facts in the writings of others and was indebted to others for most of the stories of his plays. The question is not who furnished the stone, or who owned the quarry, but who chiseled the statue.³

Even though Woolbert did not originate all of his ideas, he made a monumental contribution because he was able to discover ways in which to apply knowl-

This paper was presented at the convention of the Speech Association of America in Washington, D. C., December 1959. Miss Trauernicht (Ph.D., University of Wisconsin, 1958), an Assistant Professor of Speech at the University of Nebraska, is in charge of Speech Education at that university. Her doctoral dissertation, "The Life and Work of Charles Henry Woolbert," is the basis for the present article, which makes an interesting addition to the series of articles on great teachers, published in *The Speech Teacher*. See ST, IV, 2 (March, 1955), p. 115, for Severina Nelson's article on "Charles Henry Woolbert."

¹ Severina Nelson, "Great Teachers of Speech: Charles Henry Woolbert," *The Speech Teacher*, IV, 2 (March, 1955), p. 115.

² Giles Wilkeson Gray, "Some Teachers and the Transition to Twentieth Century Speech Education," *The History of Speech Education in America*, Karl Wallace, Editor, Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc. (New York, 1954), p. 440.

³ Robert Green Ingersoll, "Shakespeare," *Modern Eloquence*, edited by Ansley Thorne, Modern Eloquence Corporation (New York, 1932), XIII, p. 258.

edge from other fields to the field of speech and also bring to old material a fresh approach and a new emphasis.

After graduating from Northwestern University in 1900, Woolbert taught for two years in West Aurora High School in Illinois; one year at Olivet College, Olivet, Michigan; ten years at Albion College, Albion, Michigan; eleven years at the University of Illinois and three years at the University of Iowa. In 1909 he received a Master's Degree in English from the University of Michigan and in 1918 a doctoral degree in Psychology from Harvard. Since Master's Degrees and Doctoral Degrees in Speech were unavailable at this time, he chose the fields of English and Psychology which he felt were closely related to his main interest, Speech.

Woolbert's interest in speech can be traced to his years as a student at Northwestern. His college record shows nine courses in elocution and two in forensics; he also participated in debate. Much of his interest in teaching speech came while he was at Albion College where he worked with contestants in oratory and with debaters.

In the early years of his career, his teaching field was mainly English, and secondarily Oratory and Elocution. However, his interest shifted so far toward Speech that after 1913, when he was employed as head of the Division of Public Speaking at the University of Illinois, he no longer taught English courses.

During his career, Woolbert was an influential leader in the organization which is now the Speech Association of America, being one of the charter members, working on important committees, serving as president in 1920 and Editor of the *Quarterly Journal of Speech* during 1921, 1922, and 1923. He was also a popular speaker at conventions.

Woolbert's textbook, *The Fundamentals of Speech*, was a top seller among texts in Speech and was adopted by more than 700 colleges and universities. The high school text, *Better Speech*, by Woolbert and Weaver, was unusually popular. His third book, written in collaboration with Nelson, *The Art of Interpretative Speech*, has long been a sales leader. In fact, in 1952, twenty-five years after the book's first publication, a survey showed that *The Art of Interpretative Speech* was being used by more colleges than any other text in Interpretation classes.

For years Woolbert was a frequent contributor to the *Quarterly Journal of Speech*—supplying articles, book reviews, editorials and reports. He published twenty-nine articles in Speech and Psychology journals. Fourteen unpublished manuscripts by Woolbert have been found and recorded.

In reviewing Woolbert's teaching career one is impressed with the variety of subjects and areas in which he taught. He was a debate coach, a director of plays, and a teacher of Literature, Fundamentals of Speech, Public Speaking, Interpretation, Dramatic Production, Speech Education, Public Address, Speech Correction, and the Psychology of Speech. He usually had a heavy schedule, some years teaching as many as eight different courses. For example, in 1924-1925 he taught these courses: Interpretation of Shakespeare, Interpretation and Dramatization, Play Production, Teaching of Public Speaking, Correction of Speech Defects, and the Place of Speech in Human Behavior.

Woolbert's interest in modern trends was shown by the changes he made in departments which he served. At Albion the division, Elocution and Oratory, was renamed Public Speaking as early as 1907. New courses at Albion were entit-

led Interpretive Reading and Seminar in Public Speaking. At the University of Illinois he changed the name of his division from Rhetoric to Public Speaking. The growth of the area of Speech at the University of Illinois while Woolbert was there can be seen when the courses offered during Woolbert's first year are compared with courses offered during his last year. In 1913-1914 four courses were offered and in 1925-1926 there were fourteen courses offered.

Many former students have testified to Woolbert's great enthusiasm in the classroom. Undoubtedly one of the reasons for this was his love of teaching. He once wrote:

If any member gets more fun out of it than I do, I envy him, sincerely. Even in an institution with six thousand communicants, I am something of a mental high priest and a father confessor. I sympathize feelingly with my colleagues who find their charges empty of head and dead of heart. I count it as a personal privilege to be in a profession that offers unusual opportunities to fill the one and vitalize the other.⁴

In an unpublished article, Woolbert sets forth his considered list of qualities essential to effective teaching. These include: "Knowledge and learning, ability to organize, knowledge of audiences, understanding of human nature, sympathy and capacity for giving adequate expression to what he (the teacher) says."

He expressed his deep feeling about the subject he taught when he said: "Speech is one of the most valuable of all disciplines—and it is used by more people every day in more ways and for more problems of life and to solve more issues than any other human activity

which is subject to discipline, to investigation and learning."⁵

Woolbert is especially remembered for teaching certain theories—one of which is that a man speaking is four things: a meaning, a user of language, a voice, and visible action. This analytic approach was the basis of all his teaching.

He described their importance this way:

First we discover that Speech is a kind of four-cylindered affair: four necessary sources of power—when all four are working perfectly, speech is lovely and powerful; but when something goes wrong with any one of them, or with more than one, then the machine slows down, or stops altogether. . . . To compel others to listen so that they understand and appreciate you, you must at least use *one* of these cylinders in a *superlative* degree; or, you must use all of them moderately well; or else you must be *extra good* in *some* of them to make up for weaknesses in others. A man who is excellent in any one of these ways can get a hearing and *wield some influence* over his fellows. If he is a complete master of any *two*, he has *talent*; if master of *three*, genius; if master of all four—which never quite happens—he can conquer the world.⁶

All of the evidence we have indicates that the details of this fourfold analysis constitute one of Woolbert's most important original contributions to our field. Of the authors preceding him, Curry seems to have come the closest with the naming of three—words, modulation of tone, and action. The emphasis Woolbert placed on this approach is apparent from a letter written in 1926 to him from a student who said, "Thought—Words—Voice—Action—and the interesting way you taught them, will always be remembered."⁷

⁵ Charles Henry Woolbert, "The Teaching of Speech as an Academic Discipline," *The Quarterly Journal of Public Speaking*, IX (February, 1923), p. 2.

⁶ Charles Henry Woolbert, and Andrew Thomas Weaver, *Better Speech*, Harcourt, Brace and Company (New York, 1922), p. 23-25.

⁷ From a letter from Warren C. Bruce, St. Louis, Missouri, May 19, 1926, in a collection of Mrs. Charles Woolbert's.

⁴ Charles Henry Woolbert, "A Problem in Pragmatism," *The Quarterly Journal of Public Speaking*, II, 3 (July, 1916), p. 272.

Woolbert's belief in psychological monism as a basis from which to teach speech led him to stress the point of view that whatever a man does he does with his whole body. Severina Nelson, a student and colleague of Woolbert's commented about his classes:

In those days of the early 1920's the terminology we heard from Doc was astounding to us, for we had been schooled in traditional concepts of "mind" and "body." . . . We were told over and over that we must work 'toute d'une piece,' which meant that we would be effective only if we could 'think as a whole person!' Since to be alive was to be continuously in a state of activity, action had to be described in terms of the whole organism, considered as one unit, or integer, with highly specialized parts operating through stimulation, conduction, and contraction. We had to understand also that when he said 'action,' Woolbert was speaking not only of overt or visible action, but also of inner and visceral activity; and that the action of the mind and body were not two different things. There could be no separation which would imply that mind exists somewhere else than in the body, or that it exists in only one bodily member. We listened to his lectures, which sounded very much like the way he wrote, 'When we are being stimulated by a speaker, we are as busy as a hive of bees, and with an activity frequently quite as hidden from the eye of the observer. Our neurons are in a state of agitation and changes; our blood flow is now fast, now slow, our viscera sink, rise, or churn.'⁸

Woolbert described himself as a behaviorist, who, as he wrote, thought of the human mind always in terms of what the whole organism was doing. He firmly believed that in solving any problem that has to do with mental functions, one should always look first to the body as a whole.⁹ He contended that there are three reasons why mastery of the whole body is necessary in speaking; without a controlled body, a capable

voice is practically impossible; without a mastery of the whole body, thinking cannot be effective; without control of the whole body, the visible signs are not effective and true. A student, in a letter to Woolbert stated his reaction to this teaching: "This prosy old world is not so unconquerable when one 'lives alertly and all over the body' as you say."¹⁰

Giles Wilkeson Gray has discussed the importance of this contribution of Woolbert's:

It was his (Woolbert's) insistence upon the inescapable unity of the whole speech process that Woolbert probably made his greatest and most enduring contribution to the transition that occurred from 1890 to 1920. The elocutionists had missed the point; there is little evidence that the writers on rhetoric, as applied to public speaking were fully aware of it. Winans had the concept but did not develop it. Although Woolbert's books did not appear until 1920, after that date scarcely a textbook on speaking was written that did not take into account many of the principles he had advanced.¹¹

Occasionally some students were a little shocked by Woolbert's unorthodox beliefs concerning "the mind." Elwood Murray has this to say:

An example of his methods was in the opening session of his seminar. He put the word 'mind' on the blackboard and the entire hour was used in getting reactions from the class to this word, to raise new and fundamental issues as to the nature, methods, and philosophy of our work.¹²

Woolbert seemed to enjoy asking his classes, "Do you think you *have* a mind?" "Where is it located?" and he taught that man cannot be said to possess a mind; he *is* a mind, event, perform-

¹⁰ From a letter from Emil W. Jungell, Menominee, Michigan, May 15, 1926, in a collection of Mrs. Charles Woolbert's.

¹¹ Giles Wilkeson Gray, "Some Teachers and the Transition to Twentieth Century Speech Education," *The History of Speech Education in America*, Karl Wallace, Editor, Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc. (New York, 1954), p. 445.

¹² From a letter from Elwood Murray to the writer, September 26, 1956.

⁸ Severina Nelson, "Great Teachers of Speech: Charles Henry Woolbert," *The Speech Teacher*, IV, 2 (March, 1955), p. 115.

⁹ From a letter from Woolbert to H. J. Heltman, December 10, 1923, in a collection of letters of Weaver's.

ance, activity, things happening—behavior. He believed that total behavior, including emotional and intellectual processes together, constitutes what is traditionally called the mind; mind is what the body is doing. Gray says that Woolbert's entire philosophy was centered on the principle of activity, overt or covert.¹³ Woolbert once defined expression as being "a matter of uttering sounds so that the right meaning will be stirred in the mind of the hearer."¹⁴ To Woolbert "stirring up thought" more accurately described the process of speaking than did "carrying thought." He often explained that the speaker uses sound waves and light waves to stir in the mind of the hearer mental processes that have meaning; the stimulus—response must always be considered.

It is quite certain that Woolbert introduced to the speech field the principle of empathy. As early as 1920 in his first text he discussed it:

Behavioristic psychology teaches today that whatever is grasped or apprehended, whatever makes an impression or 'takes,' does so by impelling the observer to try to do the thing he is observing. . . . Such reproduced action is of course not copied by the observer in precisely identical form; it is done incipiently, representatively, diagrammatically, symbolically in outline. . . . A moving, bending, gesturing speaker asks his audience to move, bend and gesture, too.¹⁵

He later defined empathy as a "feeling in." In no other contemporary speech textbook was empathy considered.

Woolbert seemed to base his teaching on his belief that learning is the result of two processes—analysis and synthesis. In a letter to a colleague he wrote:

¹³ From a letter from Giles Wilkeson Gray to the writer, October 3, 1956.

¹⁴ Charles Henry Woolbert, "Theories of Expression: Come Criticism," *The Quarterly Journal of Public Speaking*, I, 2 (July, 1915), p. 127.

¹⁵ Charles Henry Woolbert, *The Fundamentals of Speech*, Harper and Brothers Publishers (New York, 1920), p. 331.

I stand unequivocally upon the doctrine that teaching involves analysis and synthesis; that there must be a knowledge of details which later can be woven together into a completed new whole. I believe that proper teaching involves the recognition of elements and later manipulation, as it were, of those elements. What psychology I know teaches me this clearly; that the only learning process that can be relied upon as serviceable for education begins with conscious attention.¹⁶

Later, in a textbook, he explained this point of view by saying:

The only way to get at a pupil whose thinking does not guide him right is to take the thing apart and show him how it works. As a matter of teaching, it is the best way of developing the student's powers of self-criticism and cultivating good speech habits. No system is complete that does not make its products into keen and accurate analyzers.¹⁷

As an advocate of a system of orderly procedure in learning, Woolbert offered plans for preparing and organizing speeches in steps. He presented the four vocal elements—quality, force, time, and pitch in this order for two reasons. First, this sequence follows the biological order in which the vocal code comes into being. Second, it puts the emotional and the intellectual aspects of speaking into their relative positions on the scale from totality to specificity of response.

In the study of interpretation he believed that a reader should prepare systematically, working on the two processes of "impression" and "expression." He dealt first with the process of impression, following the principle that the reader must understand and feel the meaning of the selection before he can gain a response from the audience. Woolbert advocated dividing impression into a study of logical setting, emotional setting, logical details and emo-

¹⁶ From a letter from Woolbert to Heltman, January 7, 1923, in a collection of Weaver's.

¹⁷ Charles Henry Woolbert and Severina Nelson, *The Art of Interpretative Speech*, Appleton-Century-Crofts (New York, 1945), p. ix.

tional details; then expression should stress the phases of visible action, vocal quality, force, tempo and pitch in that order.

In some of his earlier writing Woolbert provided specific directions and rules for posture, movement and gesture. Because of his use of rules and his specificity of directions some critics considered his approach mechanical. However, whatever might be considered mechanical was merely an emphasis on the study of separate parts in the method of analysis and he certainly did not neglect the importance of the subjective aspect. He did admit that the "think-the-thought" method has its place in that it provides a necessary foundation of sincerity and honesty. In Woolbert and Weaver's book there is this statement:

Do not make the mistake of assuming the authors of this textbook advocate the kind of conscious control of the body in speaking which would direct attention to posture, movement, and gestures in real speaking. The movement of muscles in speech should be habitual, that is, done unconsciously. . . . But to improve our speech we must learn consciously.¹⁸

From Woolbert's writing and from the expressed opinions of those who knew Woolbert personally, certain techniques of teaching seem to emerge clearly. Rather than lecturing to his classes, he seemed to prefer probing, asking questions designed to provoke thought, compelling students to discover new ideas for themselves. In describing Woolbert's teaching methods, time and time again his students emphasize his skill in stimulating them to think and read. He was constantly challenging his classes, by throwing out problems and urging them to seek solutions through independent inquiry.

¹⁸ Charles Henry Woolbert and Andrew Thomas Weaver, *Better Speech*, Harcourt, Brace and Company (New York, 1922), pp. 61-62.

As Lester Thonssen says:

Woolbert impressed his students with his eagerness and curiosity. He seemed to enjoy playing with ideas, pursuing their implications and tracing the ways in which the particular ideas related to other ideas in the various fields of learning. He seemed to be pleased when his conclusions, carefully arrived at, ran mildly counter to the conventional, traditional views. His teaching was largely of the exploratory type.¹⁹

Woolbert's extraordinary influence in speech education derived largely from his positive personality. "Dynamic" is the adjective most frequently used in describing Woolbert. Weaver, who was long associated with him, says: "And we shall always think of him as he was: strenuous, dynamic, vibrantly alive."²⁰

Lousene Rousseau, who knew him well, tell us:

He was a perfect illustration of what he taught. His voice and vigor were impressive. He bubbled over when he talked about his ideas, and the more he talked, the more ideas he seemed to get.²¹

One of the finest attributes of Woolbert as a teacher was his deep concern for his students. They seemed to sense this attitude and responded with sincere appreciation and affection. At a dinner given in Woolbert's honor, many students paid tribute to him in speeches and letters of praise and esteem. Mrs. Woolbert says that she was impressed by the number of times she heard repeated: "Dr. Woolbert was my friend."²²

He considered his students as individuals and he adjusted his teaching to meet the needs of each person. His first interest was the student, and subject matter was of secondary importance. He

¹⁹ From a letter from Lester Thonssen to the writer, September 21, 1956.

²⁰ Andrew T. Weaver, "Charles Henry Woolbert," *The Quarterly Journal of Speech*, XVI, 1 (February, 1930), p. 1.

²¹ From a conference with Miss Lousene Rousseau, December 30, 1954.

²² From a conference with Mrs. Charles Woolbert, April 14, 1955.

aimed at democratic ends in his teaching. Although he paid attention to the training of the talented student and the average student, he often said that the true gauge of the teacher's success is the showing he can make in the improvement of the lower half. He said: "If you would know how great a success a teacher is, call for a parade of the weak and afflicted; the teacher who can lead these unfortunate ones somewhere near to mediocrity is probably the most genuinely successful."²³

This attitude was noticed by the students, for one wrote this to him: "Any way you are not interested in the talented but the mediocre, or even worse, and that is one of the reasons for my high regard for you."²⁴

Yet we should not leave the impression that Woolbert was not interested in his talented students. The phenomenal

record of his proteges in winning first places in orations and debate attests his attention to those with superior ability.

One of his debaters describes his coaching as follows:

Those of us who were fortunate to work with him on debates can well appreciate the wholesome, natural way in which he coached us. He had the knack of getting down to basic fundamentals and then patiently drilled us in them. They will stick. How different were his results! Stilted artificiality, with all its florid nothingness, was always tabooed. Plain substance given in an easy, natural, palatable style, characterized his teaching.²⁵

Woolbert was one of the eminent teachers who have contributed to the methods and materials we use today. He discovered principles and techniques which he shared unselfishly with his profession. His teaching provides a bright example which all of us would do well to emulate. His influence on the personal lives of his students and associates was profound and enduring.

²³ Charles Henry Woolbert, *The Fundamentals of Speech*, Harper and Brothers, 1920, Preface.

²⁴ From a letter from Arno Phillips, Chicago, Illinois, May 19, 1926, in a collection of Mrs. Charles Woolbert's.

²⁵ From a letter from Ambrose Arnold, New York City, May 17, 1926, in a collection of Mrs. Charles Woolbert's.

IMAGINATION—THE ANSWER TO TOURNAMENT DEBATE

Gerald M. Phillips

IN his *apologia* for tournament debate in the March, 1960 issue of *The Speech Teacher*, Russel Windes concludes with the suggestion that debate people ought to re-examine their goals and engage in research. I agree with these basic contentions. I am known as being more than a little hostile to tournament debate as now practiced, yet I consider myself a "committed" debate coach, with a "big program." My antipathy to tournament debate is based on the same grounds as Mr. Windes' support—visceral feeling. But I do not intend to pick up the challenge made by Mr. Windes to "... pick up the burden of proof and to provide a counterplan." It would be foolish to offer my constructive case after the negative has spoken. I should assert, however, that I feel that often our problems in debate are compounded by the interesting manner we debate coaches have of confusing our ideals with fact. Because we feel that tournament debating has advantages, and because we assert them we still have established no proof.

The program, of which I am the coach, is a type which I infer Mr. Windes would oppose. Our budget is more than adequate, and we operate on a mass basis. We had 91 different persons participate in debate last year. Of these, 42

took off-campus trips. We engaged in 361 rounds of competitive debate, and we did not have an impressive won-lost record. We did 137 separate audience programs to a total of 32,761. We also maintained an extensive radio-TV offering. As a coach I received a reduced teaching load because I worked in debate. I have two graduate assistants, and another full-time faculty member helps me coach individual events. Our program has the full support of the speech department. The faculty of the college in general helps us to provide audiences for our programs, and they also serve as judges in the three tournaments we sponsor annually. We are proud of our program. It is out of this background that I offer my challenge to the tournament oriented—the challenge that says that the chief criticism that could be levelled against them is lack of imagination.

I do not offer the wornout arguments against tournament debating. I concede that when tournament debate is well judged and the teams honestly coached, there is both educational value and pleasure to be derived. There are few tournaments, however, that fit these criteria. We found, for example, in a survey conducted by one of our graduate students, that 60% of the tournaments conducted nationally make extensive use of student judges. The use of students cannot be condoned if intelligent critiques are desired. Mr. Windes says it is an insult to a coach to infer that he cannot judge objectively. I agree. But it is rare that our debate teams are

Here is one of our replies to Mr. Windes' article supporting tournament debating, which appeared in *The Speech Teacher* for March, 1960. The author is Assistant Professor of Speech and Forensics Adviser at Washington State University (Pullman). He completed the M.A. (1950) and Ph.D. (1956) degrees at Western Reserve University.

judged by other coaches, or even faculty. Of the 361 rounds of debate in which we participated this year, more than 200 were judged by students. Schools that employ student judges justify their practice by saying, "Well, they are just like real audiences." I would infer then that a "real audience" had some value. If so, let us obtain "real audiences" and not use a substitute of one, frequently uninterested student.

A well coached tournament team learns something of research technique—and just how much is a moot point. However, I am sure that Mr. Windes would not let a team of his plagiarize their case from a debate "handbook" or use a printed set of file cards. I would not either. But we have all seen teams whose coaches permit this. I think it is safe to infer that teams that use the "canned" cases do not learn research, and there are apparently enough teams of this type to keep three companies in business. I wonder what sort of judging we could expect from judges who allow the use of "canned" cases. My own opinion would lead me to say that the judge's knowledge could not go very far beyond the prepared material, and hence, he would be unable to understand anything original. But, even if we could get a "perfect" tournament, would we solve our fundamental problems in debate? I think not.

The trap we must avoid is, that in our defense of tournaments, we do not over-value them. Tournaments may supply some skill in pure, logical argument, but we must not forget that *logos* and *pathos* cannot be separated. I am "Deweyan" enough to feel that a learning process should have some relation to real life. Windes cites Richard Nixon as a speaker whose debate experience has helped him. What of FDR, Winston Churchill, Adlai Stevenson and John

Kennedy, who had no debate experience. I think it is safe to infer that Nixon had some talent—but can we infer that the others were less effective because they had no debate training. There is no evidence that can be found that compares, objectively, the careers of public speakers with and without debate experience. All we can do here is guess, assert and hope. But we do know that Nixon and every other effective speaker, speaks to people. The type of competition which we find at a debate tournament has no comparison to anything in real life. We have real winners in life's battles. We do not measure a football victory by finding out which team scored the most first downs. It is points that count. So in speaking, we do not measure victory by analyzing the logical organization of a speech. Contestry and "gamesmanship" are fun and often stimulating, but we'd best beware of calling them real. I might say that there is a mutual burden of proof. Those who make assertions about tournaments had best bring forth some evidence. Windes cites Giffin's "10 Objectives" and they are just that (though in fact they can be reduced to—debate attempts to train intelligent, coherent speakers who are honest and ethical). All Giffin is saying is that it would be nice if debate brought this about. Still no proof.

Turning to more constructive matters, rather than attempt to build a case for a purely audience-oriented program—which would be absurd, may I offer some suggestions about types of programs that can be run in conjunction with tournament debating which would provide new experiences. Since there is no proof as to the value of tournaments I might conclude that these types of programs would have at least equal value. Of course, to recognize their possible values

requires imagination—a commodity sorely lacking all over these days.

1. *Tours.* This year two students from our school toured the entire state of Washington with two invited guests from Western Reserve University. They presented 14 debate and discussion programs at high schools and junior colleges. They used the national high school topic, hoping to stir up interest in debate in various communities. They had a total audience of more than 6,000. Since each host paid a \$15.00 fee or provided a night's lodging, the total cost of the tour came to a net of \$60.00, a small price for the amount of experience they got. This tour was so successful that our oral interpretation people got together and prepared a one hour adaptation of *Taming of the Shrew*. Three companies went on tour with that and visited 55 schools for 70 performances in front of more than 22,000 people. The total cost of these three tours was \$110.00 net. All of these tours were conducted during break periods so no class time was lost. The students have drawn audiences as high as 700 for performances on our own campus. Of the 17 different students that participated in the tours, all but three are active in tournament debating. Thus, their forensics program this year was balanced. They know the relative merits, at least as far as they are concerned, of tournament debating and audience experience.

2. *The Town Meeting.* Annually, Portland State College sponsors a Town Meeting Tournament. In this tournament students prepare speeches representing their own view on the tournament question. They then appear in five three-man symposium programs before audiences, including high schools, college classes, civic clubs, P.T.A.'s, etc. The audiences judge the speakers as to effectiveness. In a day and a half the partic-

ipants get intensive audience and competitive experience. We have duplicated this tournament entirely on our own campus. Using the Town Meeting format we were able to schedule five programs in one day for 52 participating students. The classes ranged from Fundamentals of Speech to Range Management and included classes in biology, English, philosophy, economics, etc. Again, the participants gained intensive experience in working with audiences in a competitive framework.

3. *Festivals.* In a recent issue of *Western Speech*, Professor Lloyd Jones of Ohio State College called for the establishment of an interpretation festival, where persons interested could work and perform without the pressures of a debate tournament. We have been compelling persons interested in interpretation and oratory to compete in debate in order to have an opportunity to participate in their main area of interest. These individual events appear to have sufficient intrinsic merit in them to warrant spending a whole session on them from time to time.

4. *Legislative Assembly.* Probably the most vivid memories I have of my undergraduate debate experience is of the Delta Sigma Rho Student Congress. While overdoing this sort of thing might be boring, an occasional assembly provides great stimulation to the participants, in addition to confronting him with the challenge of motivating an audience and functioning in a framework where they must develop their own limelight. Admittedly, the legislative assembly is a form of role playing, but I might note that there is a vast literature tending to prove the values of role playing, and hence we might infer that there is some real carry-over from the playing out of roles in political areas.

5. *Problem Solving Tournament.* In

the same issue of *The Speech Teacher* in which Mr. Windes' article appeared, Professor Giffin of Kansas described his problem-solving tournament. It sounded fascinating to me. We have never done anything of the sort and we should very much like to try it.

6. *Student Forum*. An on-campus student forum is an excellent training ground and recruiting arena for debaters. We have held such a forum this year in conjunction with our local radio station. Debaters have prepared on a topic and then cross-examined a faculty member on some controversial area in his speciality. Faculty cooperation has been excellent, the students have been stimulated, and our listening audience has averaged 25,000.

Here are six suggestions for sorts of programs that can be added to competitive debate. The average debate coach has tremendous energy—he has to simply to hold his job. But the “coach” must remember that he is not the equivalent of the football coach. The debate coach is a teacher and scholar—and maybe “coach” is a bad word. Perhaps we all lack imagination and focus our ideas on the competitive because we are called “coach.” I like to call myself “speech activities adviser,” an appellation slightly less connotative of “win or die.” If we conduct ourselves as teachers and scholars, and apply imagination and research to our field, we may yet develop so strong a case in our own behalf that we may never have to justify a budget again.

TWO ARTICLES ON THE TEACHING OF PERSUASION

I. THE PHILOSOPHY OF PERSUASION

Wayne C. Minnick

A HARVARD professor, writing in 1926, made a discerning appraisal of his day. "It is a fascinating age," he wrote, "full of life and variety, sentimental and vicious by turns; in it the sublime and ridiculous rub shoulders. Powerful and impotent at once, opulent, but not altogether happy, never far from war and starvation, master of untold physical resources and slave of its own imperious desires, our civilization is moving with increasing rapidity along a road not of its own choosing."¹ The sentimentality and viciousness that William Greene observed in 1926 have since multiplied, two major wars have flamed and gone out, and civilization still moves unwittingly it seems, swiftly along a road that appears to be a highway to destruction.

Counsel and advice are plentiful. From all quarters and by all available means, persuasions are aimed at us by those who are sincerely convinced, and by those who merely pretend, that they have

found the right direction for society to take. Through this welter of advice, through this clash of claim and counterclaim, through this confusion of wheedling exhortation and threat, honest and conscientious men are peering, hoping to choose a path down which civilization may move, that will guide away from destruction toward peaceful and humanitarian goals.

Since persuasion now has grown to be a principle instrument in the formulation of society's goals, those who are concerned with the teaching of it need more urgently than ever to examine the basic premises that undergird their instruction and specify its character and limits. It will be the purpose of this paper to take a hard look at the philosophy which guides, or appears to guide, the instruction and practice of persuasion in contemporary American society.

The assumptions about life underlying much of the persuasion that is taught and practiced today are not difficult to discern. It is common to say of man that he is either this or that, that he is inherently good or inherently wicked, that he is either selfish or altruistic, that he is intelligent and educable, or stupid and intractable, that he is logical or non-logical. This kind of philosophy we may call the philosophy of extremes. We

The writer of the first of the two articles on teaching persuasion in this issue is Professor and Chairman of the Department of Speech at Florida State University (Tallahassee). Many readers know his text, *The Art of Persuasion*, Houghton-Mifflin (1957). He took his M.A. (1947) and Ph.D. (1949) degrees at Northwestern University.

¹ *The Dialogues of Plato*, William Chase Greene, ed., Liveright Publishing Corp., New York, 1927, p. xvi.

would not suppose that among professors, who are accustomed to making fine distinctions, there would be much service paid to this view of mankind. Strangely, however, it seems to have been the only, or principal, view underlying the instruction of advocacy in our universities and colleges. Shaped by the assumption that man is either intelligent and logical at one extreme, or non-logical and emotionally undisciplined at the other, our instruction traditionally has consisted of two courses which express this dichotomy,—the course in argumentation and debate and the course in persuasion.

Devoted to the image of a rational man, debate instruction stresses reasoning, and the accumulation of facts and evidence. Persuasion, as it is usually taught, is obsessed with the notion of man's irrationality and has developed the button pushing, wire pulling, manipulative approach. Beyond the academic scene, but springing probably from the academic view, persuasion in the market place is devoted pretty much to the same dual concept of the nature of mankind. Thus we have on one hand the dialectician turned statesman, and on the other, the statesman turned depth psychologist. Much of the persuasion of both becomes sterile because of a misjudgment of man—the one too elevated and remote for the majority and the other cynically pitched to the level of the intellectual and spiritual degenerate. Since I am concerned with persuasion, and with what it has become because of the attitude of its practitioners and teachers, I would look for a moment at what appears to be a common philosophy of life. Expressed in a recent work on propaganda (and it might very well have come from some treatises on persuasion) this view describes the nature of people in the mass in the following fashion,

"The bulk of society is made up of people whose political knowledge is low and whose political decisions can be controlled. The intellect of the people is such that they act through sentiment and emotion rather than through reason. Issues are seen as black or white, and any discussion of shades of gray results in confusion rather than clarification."²

If one has in his mind that most people are constituted in the manner just described, I think it is obvious that the kind of persuasion he uses will be tailored accordingly. It is likely to be frankly manipulative. It becomes propaganda in the worst sense of that word, and while the stratagems it leads to are distasteful, they are merely a natural and logical consequence of the conception of mankind that is entertained. To use the words of one of history's greater propagandists, "The grand strategy—is to manipulate anxieties, hopes, and aggressions against a background of controlled information and in coordination with other instruments of social control, so as to increase the probability of the kind of behavior which is desired at a given time."³ Repugnant as this ideal is to those who cherish some faith in the dignity of mankind, the tactics of the propagandist are even more repulsive. For example, "Pitch the propaganda toward the least intelligent in the audience."—"Appeal to sentiment and feeling and not to reason and rationality."—"Simplify at all times. Pick only a few themes, but repeat these themes constantly."—"Never leave grounds for doubt, talk in terms of absolutes."—"Present issues in one-sided fashion."

² Hideya Kumata and Wilbur Schramm, *Four Working Papers on Propaganda Theory*. Written in part with the help of the United States Information Agency, under contract 1A-W-362, between USIA and the Institute of Communications Research, University of Illinois, 1955, p. 40.

³ *Ibid.*, p. 60.

"Stereotype whenever possible"—"Build up images" and so on through a cynical, depressing and lengthy catalogue.⁴

I do not believe that this view is confined to war-time propagandists or only to a few warped minds. I think it has always existed, and it exists now in a numerous and influential segment of our society. I think the television program planners have this view of the audience in mind when they plan a majority of their programs. I think the newspaper copywriter has this audience in mind when he writes and when he chooses the stories that he will build into sensational news. I think many a magazine editor has just this view of mankind when he decides editorial policies and chooses the content of his periodical. I think most advertisers look on their customers in just this way.

Very little progress, I suspect, will be made in improving the quality of persuasion as it is practiced by advertisers, journalists, and statesmen, as long as they begin with the implicit assumption that the people in their audience are fools, and that as such they can be and deserve to be manipulated with cynical contempt. Although our courses in persuasion are not so straightforward and blunt about it, they partake liberally of this same philosophy and often have the effect of inculcating these same attitudes in the students who enroll in them. One comes away from some persuasion courses with the feeling that he has developed into a masterful puppeteer whose happy knack it now is to pull the appropriate strings that will make jump those ingenious barbarians who comprise the masses.

Now let us look at that other extreme view of man. That view which says of him that he is the prince of rational

creatures. According to this view, the mass of men are endowed with a mature wisdom. As George Bancroft, the famous American historian, once put it, "The gifts of mind and heart are universally diffused. The sentiment of truth, justice, love and beauty exists in everyone. It follows as the necessary consequence then that the common judgment in taste, politics, and religion is the highest authority on Earth and the nearest possible approach to an infallible decision. Reason is a universal faculty and the universal decision is the nearest criterion of truth."⁵ This is an appealing picture of mankind—an agreeable one—and it is just as easy to believe in it as it is to disbelieve in the former. Our debate courses reflect this concept of man by their exclusive devotion to reasoned discourse, the accumulation of evidence, the avoidance of fallacies, and the obdurate of emotional excitement. A distinguished member of our profession says that, "The end aimed at is a reasoned or reflective judgment rather than a judgment made impulsively through the dictates of desire, prejudice or authority." Internal controls work to diminish the influence of self-interest and emotion by demanding "the setting forth for public examination of the facts and reasoning upon which the view is based," and "the suspending of judgment until both sides have been fully heard."⁶ Now clearly, this procedure of debate springs from a philosophy, from a concept of mankind, that is different from the concept that appears to be implicit in many of our persuasion courses.

It appears now to one who juxtaposes

⁵ "The Office of the People in Art, Government, and Religion," in *Orations From Homer to McKinley*, P. F. Collier and Son, New York, 1902, p. 5636.

⁶ Douglas Ehninger, "Decision by Debate—A Re-examination," *QJS*, XLV (October, 1959), 282-3.

⁴ *Ibid.*, p. 49 ff.

these two philosophies that they are incompatible—that the debater's assumptions about the nature of mankind and the assumptions made by the persuader, at least as we have here described them, cannot be squared. Yet debater and propagandist alike will prove the soundness of his assumptions by citing instances in which the conduct of men was successfully influenced by his particular mode of discourse. Of course, each is right. It is true that on occasion tight and rigorous argument succeeds in influencing an audience while on another occasion the most shabby of the propagandist's tricks carries off the day. But Socrates was never a very popular man and Gerald L. K. Smith appealed mostly to the lunatic fringe. When we examine what psychological test results suggest about the ability of large groups of people, we find further reason to question these extreme conceptions of man. Intelligence test scores of large populations, for example, fall invariable into a Gaussian curve, which indicates that approximately 10% or 15% are very, very bright, and a corresponding percentage is very, very dull. These two extremes are not separated by sharp demarcations from the rest of the population, but it is a fact that the vast majority of the population *does* cluster around a norm, and that this norm is considerably removed from either of the extremes. I think that other measures of large groups, such measurements as emotional stability, social adjustment, and personality development, indicate much the same sort of picture—marked extremes at either end, with the rest of the population distributed between but clustering heavily near the central mean.

You can foresee, probably, what I am about to suggest—that because we have developed an either/or philosophy we have devoted our theorizing and instruc-

tion to the extremes. A segment of the population thinks logically and rationally, is emotionally well adjusted, and responds to communications that are tailored with this kind of man in mind. For them, debate. A segment of the population is substandard in intelligence, is childish and immature in its attitudes, and responds readily to communications which are devised with their characteristics in mind. For them, a persuasion that is tainted with the propagandist's poison.

I would ask, however, what about that large mass of men who fall somewhere in between the very bright and the very dull or between the emotionally well-adjusted and the emotionally disturbed. Is discourse fashioned for the extremes suitable for this group? I doubt it. I suspect that most men have not much patience with extended logical demonstrations on one hand, and that they are, on the other hand, just as disgusted as you and I are at times with the more apparent abuses of the hidden persuaders.

Now nobody, I am sure, knows what people of this large middle class are really like, and I suppose any generalization about them is bound to be risky. I am, therefore, exposing myself to correction when I offer certain assumptions which I think would apply to the average man. I am aware also that no such thing as an "average man" exists—that the average is a statistical myth—but for purposes of ease in discussion let me state a few of my assumptions about this non-existent fellow.

1. His intellectual and emotional maturity are arrested well below what we would consider an ideal level. This condition makes it difficult for him to assimilate mature ideas in mature ways. Harry Overstreet says: "A mature truth told to immature minds ceases, in those minds, to be the same mature truth. Immature minds take from it only what im-

mature minds can assimilate."⁷ Since, what they can assimilate is so meager when compared with the whole truth, mature men tend to lose patience with the average person, and worse yet, refuse any longer to try to talk to him because doing so means couching a communication in less than mature terms.

2. The average man's actions and beliefs spring from a structure of attitudes which are derived from experience according to established laws of perception and learning. Not only do these laws of perception and learning affect the saliency of a received message, but they affect the content of the message itself, filtering it of incongruous and incompatible elements. Often a carelessly conceived communication does not get through the personal filter at all, or it comes through as only a highly selected and distorted residue. Logical demonstration, constructed without regard for the personal factor in communication, is most likely to suffer this fate. Discourse that reaches this fellow must appeal to him as genuine experience—with all its affective and subjective components arranged to penetrate the filter of his perceptual and attitudinal system.
3. Finally, while the average man is naive and can easily be fooled, his modes of learning and perception are geared for survival, and he responds ultimately to inducements that have survival value. Clever propagandists, by skillful manipulation of perceptual and learning tendencies, may delude him for extended periods, especially if the mature elements of society lose contact from lofty idealism or from devotion to extreme views of the nature of man.

If these assumptions are correct, and of course they are open to dispute, it follows that most audiences must be approached somewhat, though not entirely, through the means employed by the psychiatrist when he deals with excessive fears, emotional conflicts, and fixed prejudices. This approach assumes that knowing something abstractly is not enough, that real changes in conduct emerge from a reorientation of the whole personality. It assumes that, for a vast

number of people, persuasion needs to be a kind of therapy aimed at enriching experience and provoking insights in order to change the attitudes which provide the impulses to action.

From the standpoint of society, vast benefits would accrue if our mature members became more adept at communicating with the immature. Persuasion would become an instrument for guiding the masses toward maturity rather than what it so frequently is now—an instrument of degeneration. Such a philosophy would sharpen our awareness of what I call "communicative determination"—the idea that the kind of communication patterns that are practiced in a society is a major force in determining the mental health of its people.

On the academic scene, such a philosophy would cause a blurring of the distinctions between persuasion and argumentation and debate. Neither is appropriate to the usual run of mankind, but useful in a minority of cases. An amalgam of both would be more suitable to the majority of men. It could improve the quality of advocacy. It would broaden the influence of reason, and harness passion in a saner approach to the solution of social problems.

A recent book in social psychology observes, "It is characteristic of contemporary psychology that many of its traditional and self-contained compartments are losing some of their distinctiveness by a process of intellectual osmosis."⁸ Some of this intellectual osmosis should invade the speech field; it should penetrate the wall between persuasion and debate.

⁸ M. B. Smith, J. S. Bruner, R. W. White, *Opinions and Personality*, John Wiley and Sons, Inc., New York, p. 7.

⁷ *The Mature Mind*, W. W. Norton & Co., Inc., New York, p. 88.

II. TEACHING THE COURSE IN PERSUASION

Winston L. Brembeck

IN the pamphlet "College Teaching as a Career" prepared by the American Council on Education, T. V. Smith writes of teaching:

I all but missed this professional career, and I shudder to think how close I came to that misfortune. . . . We are as little as possible engaged in the power struggle. Our profession has managed to make of arduous work a pleasure by transmuting pressures into power-with, rather than power-over, others. . . . Only those who know the military or have experienced the industrial form of organization will fully appreciate how lucky is our academic lot. . . . It is good, how good, to share the unearned increments of joy arising from continuous collaboration of youth and age.

To Professor Smith's observations I would add that this joy can be maximal if one's academic lot includes teaching a course in persuasion, teaching those who must participate in the power struggles present in almost all the vocations and professions. Here, indeed, is a course concerned with materials as fascinating as life itself for, you see, in a very real sense it is life.

In my limited time this afternoon I, of course, must narrow my discussion considerably. No one would have the temerity to even hint that he could provide a complete treatment in twenty minutes. Nonetheless, I hope I can sketch some general suggestions that may be of value. In doing this you must realize, of

course, that these suggestions will reflect my own philosophy of persuasion and education, and not necessarily those of the sponsor or other participants on this program.

Let me conclude these preface remarks by adding that this report assumes that the teacher of the course in persuasion is engaging in effective teaching techniques and has ordered his materials around clear and defensible educational objectives. I am hoping, therefore, that what I have to suggest regarding points of view and materials for the course will be given effective teaching procedures by the instructor.

Granting this, I wish now to make eight suggestions which I trust will be of benefit in teaching a course in persuasion.

1. *The Student of Persuasion must First see that Persuasion is a Way of Life in a Free Society.*

Today you and I live in the greatest persuasion density of all time. No other society has been or is being bombarded so much by persuasive stimuli as are we in the United States. Persuasion is not like a faucet that is just on occasion turned on; it is with us every waking hour. From birth to death, from awakening until asleep we are in the market place of opinion change where there are innumerable missionaries to the minds of men. Here in this maelstrom—both as consumers and producers—we live and become the products of the prevailing systems of persuasion.

Whereas in earlier days only a spe-

The author of the second article is Professor of Speech and Director of Forensics at the University of Wisconsin, from which he received his Ph.D. (1947). His specific suggestions on teaching will be of interest to many who already know his *Persuasion*, Prentice-Hall, Inc. (1952).

cializing few sought to study persuasion technically, we now have a stepped-up program where people from almost all walks of life are seeking armaments in persuasion. Some of these practitioners are no longer content to employ the more obvious and conscious techniques; they are now probing our subconscious through motivation research—known as MR for short—and subliminal advertising. The public relations men on Madison Avenue and the king makers in California are showing our political parties how to sell political figures like a bar of soap or a new deodorant. John Schneider's *The Golden Kazoo*, Vance Packard's *The Hidden Persuaders*, and Stanley Kelley's more scholarly *Professional Public Relations and Political Power* certainly have highlighted these sobering facts for us.

At this point I might parenthetically add that some practitioners in persuasion are no longer content with looking into the secrets of our minds, but are restless with mere reliance on the spoken or written word. Now they are adding aromas to aid in engineering attitudes and consent. You probably have heard of Michael Todd Jr.'s "AromaRoma" in which odors are released at appropriate times to help create the desired attitudes. Smell-O-Vision seeks to do the same. As a personal friend of mine recently remarked in recounting the recent history of film entertainment, "First they moved, then they colored, and now they smell."

The full story of the history and methods of persuasion cannot be told here, but the point being made is that the student of persuasion must first see this matrix of influence in which we find ourselves. He must see that persuasion is a way of life, that democracy itself is a system of competing persuasions, and he must somehow come to terms with this fact. Now let us turn to a second basic

consideration in the teaching of persuasion.

2. *The Ethical Corollary of Freedom to Persuade is Moral Responsibility.*

Recent investigations of rigged television quiz shows, deception in advertising, and "payola" in the promotion of records and other products have served to increase the already large body of distrust of all types of persuaders. The course in persuasion must not be developed in a manner which will lead our students to think that it is nothing more than a "bag of tricks." It seems to me we must show that there are basic considerations in human motivations that are soundly deduced from responsible study of man, that these principles and methods can be prostituted by malpractice, but that the responsible student of persuasion must work out a tenable code of ethics which will govern his craftsmanship in the field. The present level of morality in persuasion can be examined by having the class analyze the persuasion used by various politicians, preachers, salesmen, corporations, and the like. Existing approaches to ethics in persuasion can be compared to codes proposed by class members. All the while the students can be kept aware of the future of a free society, and the quality of man himself, if existing practices continue or perhaps increase.

This whole study can be a very enlightening experience. Happily in recent years we in speech are grappling with this matter more than was formerly true. Teachers and writers in the field are giving this matter very serious concern. Professor Minnick, who is on this panel today, Professor Oliver, Professor Howell and I, and many others, I am sure, are urging that the ethical responsibilities of the persuader must be stressed

if this field is to achieve the status and respect it deserves.

3. *The Inductive Method of Teaching is Quite Helpful in Teaching the Course in Persuasion.*

As has been suggested, it is important in beginning the course that the student understand persuasion as being indigenuous to a free society, and that ethical considerations should not be ignored. However, after these philosophic considerations the teacher is confronted with the more difficult job of teaching the often complex principles and methods of human motivation. To rely on the lecture alone is hardly adequate. I would suggest that the course be designed so that its basic materials can be developed inductively. Observation projects where students are required to study various persuasive situations are helpful. The first observation can involve auditing and reporting of a simple person-to-person type of persuasion where the student is, of course, the third and, we hope, objective party. Subsequent observations can include increasingly complex situations. Transcribed examples of various forms and media of persuasion (radio and television commercials, films, political talks, sermons, student pep rallies, etc.), plus a well-selected set of published advertisements can be very helpful. Earl Nightingale's *The Greatest Secret* is a transcription that has been quite fascinating to my students, and some of the captured Nazi propaganda films have been most helpful in teaching the role of crowd psychology in persuasion. From careful class discussions of these many examples of persuasion the process, principles, and methods of persuasion can be distilled. This procedure allows the points being taught to arise quite mean-

ingfully and with considerable interest. If you haven't used this method, try it I think it pays.

4. *Persuasion Has a Definite Process Which the Student Must Understand.*

Mark Twain once said that "a distinctive American trait is our preoccupation with process" and our study of persuasion presents no exception to this. Persuasion has a basic process which students must learn to detect and use. Successful persuasion is not a happenstance, not a loud and rapid recitation of a list of "sure-fire" appeals. The adherents to the "gimmick school" of persuasion never become real students of the field. The "sell the sizzle not the steak" boys at best are peripheral practitioners. The act of persuasion operates within a complex constellation of factors. Often the situation is so complex that we are unable to analyze or explain it fully. Nonetheless the serious student must make an attempt to analyze any given case and to perceive the process operative there.

In helping the student discover, and in turn use this process, I have found it useful to develop the stages of the process by using the inductive procedure described earlier. From the study of examples of persuasion, plus considerations of theory, the process "evolves." The students see that attention is necessarily the first and continuing step in the process, that desires useful to the speaker's goal must be aroused within the persuadee, that what the speaker has to propose must best satisfy these desires, and, finally, that the specific response (action) urged by the persuader often will need to be carefully worked out if the case is not to be lost. After the process is clear, projects can be set up to provide experience in working the process and in evaluating its use in the persuasion of others.

5. *Ethos Must Be Given Thorough Theoretical and Extensive Practical Treatment in the Course in Persuasion.*

"What you are speaks so loudly I cannot hear what you say," said Emerson. "Sell yourself first, then your product," says the sales manager to his men. Increasingly we are finding that the ethos of the persuader may be even more important than we have thought, and certainly we are finding it more complex. I am happy that more experimental researches on the subject are in progress and I hope more will follow. I tell you nothing new when I say these matters of ethos and ethical proof are difficult to teach. Yet in this course we are obliged to deal with them and more specifically and extensively than perhaps is necessary in any other course. In the study of a historic orator one can speculate upon his ethos, his uses of ethical proof, but in the course in persuasion you must analyze and evaluate that living, reacting, socially sensitive student before you. How do you get him to achieve those high virtues spoken of by Aristotle? How can you get the class members to achieve astuteness in the detection of those fine points which may be hindering the credibility of the student speaker? Certainly I don't have sure answers to these questions. I do think, however, that by a thorough discussion of the concept of ethos and the ways in which ethical proof can be used in a speech one can begin to sensitize the student to the sources of persuasion that lie *within* the speaker. This sensitivity can be increased by a review of the experimental literature and through the analyses of historic and contemporary examples of persuasion.

Soon the student should begin to see himself as others see him. He will begin to realize that his class remarks, his general attitudes, his dress,

the preparation he demonstrates in his speeches, the care with which he treats evidence, and many other factors tend to accumulate for or against him as far as class acceptance of him is concerned. In my present class is a person who has found this experience quite a soul-searching one and, as a result, a rather marked transformation is taking place in his whole attitude toward public address in general and toward the class members in particular. This, I take it, is as it should be; he is learning one of the basic lessons of persuasion.

6. *Successful Persuasion is to a Great Extent Dependent upon Accurate Audience or Persuadee Analysis.*

Yesterday I sneaked away from the Convention long enough to take a few pictures around the White House and, mainly, to see what might be the condition of the District of Columbia Rockefeller For President Club now that yesterday's papers carried the unexpected story of Governor Rockefeller's withdrawal from the race. I found the club already closed and a "For Rent" sign conspicuously placed by the door. Here is the case of a man who in recent trips across the country apparently had analyzed his "audience" carefully and decided he could not succeed in the nominating convention next summer. In a course in persuasion this matter of audience analysis can hardly be overstressed. A unit of persuasion is persuadee, not persuader, centered. It's the customer's attitudes, sentiments, stereotypes that count most. For a persuader not to know these is to fly blind. For such persuasion to succeed is, indeed, an accident. This fundamental fact must be made clear to our students. This can be done in a number of ways. I can suggest only a few.

After an introductory discussion of

the importance of persuadee analysis I like to present to the class a few rather notable historic and contemporary examples of speakers who engaged in very careful audience analyses. From speakers we shift to a brief study of the extensive and costly studies in market research carried on by business and industry. This includes a brief look at MR. Through the study of these examples the importance of carefully analyzing the audience should become well established and the student should be equipped with a sizeable list of points to be considered in making such an analysis.

The big job remains, however. This is to get the student to apply in a practical way the methods of audience analysis to the classmates he must try to persuade next Monday morning. I encourage students to take carefully prepared polls of the class at least several days before they speak. They learn much useful information regarding the social attitudes, economic status, political and religious views of class members. The more enterprising students have gained information from the home towns of classmates, from roommates on the campus, etc. In fact, I have at times been astounded, and once or twice embarrassed, by the amount of information collected regarding the class and its instructor.

As a further inducement to do a careful job of audience analysis prior to preparing the speech, I occasionally ask the speakers to plot on graph paper a profile of the possible audience attitude toward the goal they plan to seek in the forthcoming persuasive speeches. The horizontal axis of the graph has a ten point attitude scale and the vertical axis shows the number of class members falling at a given position on the scale. Thus a type of curve results. Then this anticipated picture of the audience at-

titudes can later be compared with the actual ones as shown on a ballot discussed in the section below.

These are a few things that can be done in teaching audience analysis. You undoubtedly have ideas that can be added to the list.

7. *The Speaking Projects in a Course in Persuasion Should be Made Realistic.*

Hypothetical situations may be useful in teaching certain speech skills, but they have little or no use in a course in persuasion. Student speeches must be looked upon as something more than assignments. They must be based upon a genuine urge to persuade others, and delivered in the knowledge that they will be judged chiefly in terms of the degree to which they achieve a predetermined end. I tell my own students that if, as the day approaches for a speaking assignment, some one has no better reason for speaking than because it is an assignment, then we will postpone the speech until the student has a good reason to speak. Although admittedly risky, I have found that this serves to shift student thinking to the level of genuine desire for communication and persuasion. And this is so very important in teaching persuasion.

With this approach the students is now confronted with the job of influencing the members of his class, not just a pencil-wielding instructor. Each classmate represents a challenge to be met. This can become very motivating.

It follows from all this that the instructor must "carry through" on the whole approach. This means there must be accurate checks on the results of the persuasive efforts. How many class members joined the organization as urged by one speaker? How much money was collected for the local charity at Christmas as proposed by another? How many gave a

pint of blood to the campus blood bank as proposed by still another speaker? In my files I have a number of receipts and letters of appreciation from organizations receiving money, gifts, etc., as a result of class speeches.

In sum, this course should not play make-believe; it should, as far as is possible and wise, "play for real." Of course, all this is not to suggest that a class speech should be judged solely on the degree to which it moved the class to action or belief. It does suggest, however, that its ability to move along the road of persuasion toward a clearly defined goal must be kept in mind when the elements of content and delivery are appraised.

8. *Evaluating Student Speeches in a Course in Persuasion—a Difficult But Important Task.*

Setting up a reliable system for the evaluation of the persuasive speeches in a course in persuasion has been one of the most difficult jobs I have faced as a teacher. I am never sure that I do it well. Nonetheless, as Edgar Bergen's Mortimer Snerd used to say, "I'm workin' at it." How does one know when a unit of persuasion is effective? In speeches of actuation one can, of course, check the overt responses. But even here it is difficult to decide *how many* should buy the product being sold before the speech can be judged effective or successful. One might look at what the audience members *say they will do* as the result of the speech, but here we are dealing with an unreliable criterion. We also can have the audience members report how they feel regarding the speech by a paper and pencil system of evaluation, or by a show-of-hands procedure. These, too, have limitations as you well know. And to that instructor who is inclined

to be unduly impressed by a smooth display of delivery elements, I would suggest that persuasion does not necessarily follow poised posture, graceful gestures, and a pleasing, well-modulated voice.

Perhaps because I am not sure that any single procedure of evaluation is adequate, I have developed a system which combines a number of ways of checking class speeches. If it has any useful ideas for you I shall feel rewarded.

A ballot is used which includes at the top space for the name of the speaker, date, a statement of the speaker's general and specific purpose, and a rank. The middle portion of the ballot is divided into five general categories which can be checked by the listener. These categories include the visual and oral elements, the use of language, organization of the parts of the speech, the use of attention factors, audience analysis and adaptation, and classifications of the various types of appeals. At the bottom of the ballot is a ten point attitude scale. There is room in the right margin for written suggestions for improvement.

On the day when speeches are to be delivered the following procedure is followed. Those who speak place their names and general and specific purposes for which they will speak on the blackboard at the side of the room. Each audience member is given a ballot to check for each speech he will hear. At the beginning of the period class members first fill out the information requested at the top of the ballot; then they place a circle at that point on the attitude scale which best represents their attitude toward the goal *to be sought* by the speakers. After this is carefully done, we then hear speaker number one. At the conclusion of his speech the audience again checks the attitude scale placing an X at that point on the scale which best represents their attitude *after* hearing the speech.

Also at this time the auditors fill out the remainder of the ballot, checking as very good, good, fair, poor, or very poor the various classifications covering delivery and content. This procedure then obtains for speaker number two, etc.

If speeches of actuation are given, a check is made of the responses at the close of the hour and again a week or two later.

At the conclusion of all the speeches in a given class period the class is asked to rank the speakers of the day at the top of the ballot. Then near the close of the period each speaker receives a completed ballot from each member of the audience, and is given general oral reaction to his speech.

Within the next day or two each speaker prepares the following information from his completed ballots: (1) an average rank and distribution of rank, (2) an average shift of attitude and a distribution of shift, (3) a summary sheet of all the checks on the various classifications of delivery and content, (4) a summary of the written reactions, (5) and a persuasion profile of the audience's attitude toward the speaker's purpose before and after hearing the speech. (This is done in the manner suggested in point 7).

When these materials are ready, the student comes in for a private conference at which time I help him interpret

the data and explain in some detail my own ballot. This procedure is followed in each series of speeches. The data received in the second and succeeding series can always be compared to the previous speeches. Thus the student can help plot his own improvements or weaknesses as he notes trends in these data.

The students seem to become quite interested in this whole procedure. They try to get a higher rank from someone who ranked the previous speech low; they become concerned about those who shifted in attitude very little, not at all, or who were even dissuaded (negative shift). They use the evaluations made of the various specific factors of delivery and content as guides in determining the points to work on most in preparation for the next attempt at persuasion.

The entire procedure I have outlined above assumes certain abilities on the part of the class members, for if their evaluations are to be of any value they must not be beginners in speech training. Their judgments, then, can supplement those of the instructor and together these views can produce a final evaluation of a given persuasive speech.

I have made eight suggestions which I hope will be of some help in teaching your course in persuasion. And, together, let us hope that the students we train will help lend effectiveness to that which is necessary, wise, and true in society.

SPEECH AND THE SUPERIOR STUDENT

Don Streeter

HERE are some statements worthy of our attention:

"The question which America must face up to is whether its schools can really educate everyone . . . all in the same curricular pattern and do a good job of it."

"Three out of four of our colleges and universities offer no special program for the gifted."

"Experimentation with the superior college student is nothing new, but a new cycle has recently begun."

These statements were made by Margaret F. Lorimer in the Spring, 1958, issue of the Michigan State University *Quarterly*.

Let us turn these statements into questions and apply them to ourselves: Are we keeping all students in the same curriculum in speech? Are we trying our ways of meeting the needs and abilities of the gifted student? Are many of us offering courses for superior students? What's new with us?

To find the answers to some of these questions, I made some inquiries with the encouragement of the Administrative Policies and Practices Interest Group of the SAA.

The study was limited to schools which are recognized as having an interest in the superior student. To find these schools I examined several copies of the *Newsletter* of the Inter-University Committee on the Superior Student.

As Head of the Department of Speech at the University of Houston (Texas), the writer is concerned with honors courses in speech. His Ph.D. (1948) was completed at the University of Iowa.

There were 105 colleges and universities listed. Of these, 86 have a department in which speech is taught, with the chairman's name listed in the Directory of the SAA.

An introductory questionnaire was sent to the chairman of the 86 departments and to someone addressed as "Speech Instructor" in the other nineteen. This first questionnaire contained four short questions:

1. Does your school have an "honors" course in speech, or a "special work" course in speech for freshman or sophomore students?
2. Does your school have an "honors" course for junior or senior speech students?
3. Do you try to provide for the special abilities of talented students in some special way in your basic courses?
4. Would you be interested in considering this matter further with me?

From the 105 letters sent I received a first response from 52 schools, or roughly 50 percent. Of these, seventeen responded that they have an honors course for juniors or seniors. Five said they have an honors course for freshmen. Twenty-three said they have provisions for the special abilities of talented students in basic courses. Eight respondents said they would rather hear no more about the matter!

With these replies at hand I prepared three more questionnaires, one for each of the above categories. I sent out the appropriate ones to the people who had reported. Responses are summarized below.

A. *Honors Courses for Advanced Students*

Ten schools wrote about their honors courses: The University of Arkansas; Austin College of Sherman, Texas; Baldwin-Wallace College of Berea, Ohio; The University of Connecticut; Greenville College of Greenville, Illinois; Louisiana State University; The University of New Mexico; The University of Michigan; New York University; and St. Cloud State College, of St. Cloud, Minnesota.

Some of the general characteristics of the course are as follows:

Students at the junior or senior level may receive from 2 to 12 hours credit, with most schools offering a possible six hours.

The students work under the supervision of a tutor or adviser, who does not receive credit for his service in most cases. He does it in addition to his regular load. In some cases, such as Arkansas, there is a committee of advisers.

The students spend their time in "readings," many times from a prescribed reading list, but at other times from a reading list as advised for his own purposes.

The general requirements for being admitted to such a program include a B average (B plus at Baldwin-Wallace, St. Cloud, and Michigan, and B plus in the speech department at Connecticut).

The course usually leads to a final examination, either oral or written. The student produces an honors essay at Baldwin-Wallace, Greenville, New Mexico, and NYU. The regulations for this term paper are most exact at Greenville, where it is called a thesis, and is deposited in original and first carbon in the library.

In nearly all instances the student reports at intervals to his adviser. At Arkansas they arrange for the student to

report on his progress to a seminar. Greenville has the most completely regulated system of reporting. The student is required to prepare a written report every two weeks, including a statement of the progress he has made since his last report, an accounting of the time spent in the last two weeks and of the total time spent up to that point. By the end of the semester he is expected to show a minimum of 40 hours of work. He lists his objectives for the period, and he submits a bibliography of his readings. He is admonished to submit this report through the college mail system rather than give it to the instructor in person.

The Greenville plan also offers four alternatives for the procedure. The student may: (a) take the work for extra credit by attending class regularly, doing the honors work on the side; (b) take the honors work in lieu of a regular course; (c) do the honors course work without credit while attending a regular class; or (d) do the honors work without extra credit in lieu of a regular course.

Arkansas offers a variation in that a student may work across departmental lines, doing part of his work in one field and doing related work in another department—under the cooperative supervision of the departments involved.

Most schools offer the work in any of the areas of the speech field, including theatre, public address, interpretation, radio-TV, speech and hearing therapy, speech science, speech education, and speech fundamentals. Connecticut allows the student to combine areas in the field in the reading program.

All schools except Connecticut, Greenville, Michigan, and New York University allow students who are majors in other departments to do the honors work in Speech.

B. *Honors Courses for Freshmen*

It is here that there is little to report. This is the type of course sometimes called the "special work course" or the "accelerated course." There were only two schools which wrote to me about what they do in the area: Louisiana State University and Humboldt College of Arcata, California. The University of Connecticut has just begun their program, by which some top freshmen have been placed in special sections.

Louisiana State has the course described in a mimeographed catalogue supplement. It is an accelerated section in fundamentals. In addition to the material used in the regular sections of Speech 1, the honors course section attempts to develop a greater appreciation and understanding of speech through readings and individual study of the classic origins of rhetoric, and activities of great speakers of the past and present.

At Louisiana State the course is taught by major professors in the department. No graduate assistants are assigned to the work. The section is limited to 15 students. There are two possible ways by which a student may be admitted. One is to achieve a score of 68 or more on the English placement test for entering Freshmen, or an overall average of 2.25 in other college grades for other students. (I interpret 2.0 to be a B in their system.)

Louisiana State has a second term course which is comparable to the one described above. It is called an accelerated section in public speaking. In addition to several speaking assignments, the class gives attention to the place of public address in the public forum, to the first principles of speech criticism, and to advanced principles of speech composition. Several assignments are devoted to studying speech models and to efforts of prominent speakers.

This section is limited to 15 students, as is the other. There are four ways by which a student may be admitted to the course: (1) a grade of A in the first or second semester of fundamentals; (2) successful completion of an honors section in Freshman English; (3) an average grade point of 2.5 in all previous college work; (4) permission of the instructor.

Humboldt College reports an experimental program in speech honors. They combine the work in English honors and speech honors, with two instructors present for the course. Students take the program for a year's time and receive six hours of credit. They are admitted on the basis of an entrance examination. They do not use the same text that is used in the regular fundamentals courses. They do not present a term paper. The students study adjustment to the speaking situation, bodily control, use of language, and the principles of reading aloud, public speaking, discussion, debating, and persuasion. They give class performances in the short talk, interpretation, discussion, debate and persuasion.

C. *Special Recognition in Basic Courses*

Thirteen schools wrote about their special activity program for superior students; Baldwin-Wallace; Connecticut; Greenville; Louisiana State; St. Cloud State; the University of Miami at Coral Gables; the University of Arizona; Georgetown College of Georgetown, Kentucky; Wheaton College of Wheaton, Illinois; New York University; Humboldt State; Michigan; and Redlands University of Redlands, California.

The most frequent type of recognition given the superior student is to arrange some type of speaking competition for him. It may be generally described as: a contest, open to anyone in a basic course, usually on a voluntary basis, held outside the classroom, using expository

speech or persuasive speech with about equal frequency, plus an occasional event in interpretation, for which contest the winner is usually honored by citation only, though in some instances there are small amounts of cash or plaques given.

Another type of activity mentioned is the "extra-credit" work done in some schools, such as Baldwin-Wallace, Greenville, Georgetown, Humboldt, and Redlands. The students in the regular classes are discovered early in the term by some means such as college board examinations. Usually, in this program, the students do outside reading. At Baldwin-Wallace, Greenville, St. Cloud, and Humboldt, the student writes a paper recording his study and thinking.

This study revealed that many of our colleagues have accepted the challenge of the superior student and have organized programs within the structure

of their own colleges to encourage these students—who are likely to become front-running leaders in our society—to become the literate spokesmen for the advances man is making.

To those of you who have programs which I did not learn about and which I have not reported, congratulations for doing it. We hope your experiences will be part of our knowledge before too long. To those of you whom I have treated here, my thanks. I hope we may learn more of your success.

We know that our field has ever been interested in providing an escape from mediocrity for students through our extra-curricular programs in debate, drama, and the like. Now some of our fellows are offering us leadership in providing for the exceptional abilities and talents of the best students our nation has to offer.

SPEECH EDUCATION IN SOUTH AFRICA

A. L. McLeod

IT is not generally realized that, outside the United States, speech education is most highly developed as an independent area of interest and study in the Union of South Africa; more particularly, in the Cape Province.

Elsewhere in the British Commonwealth the traditional antipathy to speech as a discrete subject of study prevails, but in South Africa there has been, for a generation now, a sincere interest in speech and a conscious effort to raise it to full status with the other and more widely accepted academic subjects.

Elsewhere in the British Commonwealth speech receives some attention: but it is regarded, almost without exception, as an adjunct to English or, in the case of speech correction, to medical training. Although the University of Bristol has a Department of Drama that department's principal interest is dramatic history and literature rather than theatre in the generally accepted American usage. But this department of drama does not include in its studies such matters as public speaking, radio and television production, oral interpretation and rhetorical theory. It is then, not a speech department under another name. It is a sub-department of the university's English Department.

Recently the newly-established University of New South Wales in Sydney,

South Africa's vital concern with speech training in the educational system will surprise and please some of our American teachers. Mr. McLeod (Ph.D., Pennsylvania State University, 1957), is Assistant Professor of Speech at State University of New York, Teachers College, Fredonia. He is also a graduate of the universities of Sydney and Melbourne, Australia, and has had articles on speech education in Australia and in the U.S.S.R. published in the *QJS*.

Australia, established an Institute of Dramatic Art: but the university not only proposes to keep the Institute from assuming the status of a department, but also proposes that the diploma to be awarded shall be offered by the *Institute* rather than by the university. In addition, completion of the diploma course will not count towards the earning of a university degree. Furthermore, students who are working for degrees are not able to elect courses in drama from among the Institute's offerings. Finally, the scope of the Institute's offerings is strictly technical: fencing, lighting, voice and diction, make-up are the basic courses.

Hence, to compare the offerings in both the Universities of Bristol and of New South Wales, is to emphasize the point that neither offers a liberal-arts type of curriculum in theatre arts and drama.

But a study of the courses offered by the universities in South Africa suggests how similar they are, in the main, to American theatre courses at the university level. The fact that these courses are offered towards the bachelor of arts degree and even at the post-graduate level is further indication of the wholesome attitude towards speech and drama that prevails in South Africa.

However, to appreciate the university offerings in speech and drama we must consider the underpinnings; as the elementary and secondary school speech requirements might be called.

For a number of years there has been a discernible change of emphasis in the teaching of English and Afrikaans in South Africa: a change from emphasis

on written to oral communication. The fact that both languages are taught in the provinces simultaneously has perhaps drawn attention to the principles of speech communication rather than to the principles of written language. However, in the new syllabus for the primary schools, issued in 1953, the Department of Education of the Cape of Good Hope Province makes it exceedingly clear that oral is to have precedence over written work in the classroom: "oral work should frequently give rise to and be supplemented by corresponding written work."¹

The preamble to the new syllabus, in discussing the new emphasis, mentions "the emergence of oral work [speech] as the vital factor in primary education." It continues:

Oral work [has gained] an important place in the curriculum and has resulted in the development of approved techniques for its presentation. With its new status in the school, oral work may indeed be said to have come into its own.

Its effect and influence may be felt in many other directions. If opportunities are regularly provided for children to state their opinions, to ask questions and to enter into group discussions, they develop both in assurance and in self respect. . . .

Through listening to children's speech the teacher is able to learn a great deal about his charges: their interests, their aspirations, their moods, their social attitudes, their personalities. He is able to observe their errors in language usage, their speech habits, misapprehensions, all of which may be dealt with and corrected at a suitable time.²

For the elementary grades the Cape Province Department of Education describes four categories of speech lessons: recitation from memory—the ancient declamation; oral interpretation

of prose and poetry; "oral exercises" and speech training.

Oral exercises are explained as practical experiences in public speaking (during which the teacher is admonished to insist upon "careful, correct, audible speech"), class discussions and informal debates. The education authorities stress, nonetheless, that though correct speech is to be sought, fluency is not to be interrupted in order to make corrections, and that cogent and orderfly development of ideas is most sought after.

Speech training has the same connotation as speech improvement. In this regard the school syllabus requires the classroom teacher to eliminate such errors in diction as the children might have developed before attending school. to minimize regionalisms in pronunciation and dialect and to attempt to establish "correct, well-modulated speech." The aim is, apparently, the minimizing of those class characteristics of speech that prevail in England and those regional characteristics of speech that are found in both England and the United States. At every stage in the elementary school the classroom teacher is expected to provide group and individual practice in the formation of vowels, consonants and diphthongs both in isolation and in words and phrases.

Oral interpretation and declamation are intended to acquaint the children with the best authors and speakers and as a means of "acquiring the art of reading aloud easily and effectively . . . with richness of expression and variety of tone."³

In both elementary (primary) school and secondary school the aims of the language program are made explicit:

(1) To increase the pupils power of comprehending *spoken* English

¹ *The Primary School Course*. Department of Public Education, Cape of Good Hope. Cape Town. 1953, p. 190.

² *Ibid.*, p. 191.

³ *Ibid.*, p. 73.

- (2) To train the pupil to *speak* correctly and to converse easily, formulating his ideas and communicating them clearly in an orderly manner
- (3) To train the child to *read* easily and with understanding, so as to profit to the fullest extent from what he reads
- (4) To train the pupil to express himself, freely clearly and in an orderly manner, in writing.⁴

It will be appreciated, especially if one has a background in the philosophy and practice of traditional British-style education, what an extraordinary change this set of aims makes in the established order of things: written expression is officially made subsidiary to speech communication.

In secondary education speech lessons are suggested by types and aims: speeches of explanation, description, demonstration and narration are to lead into teacher-led discussions, student-directed discussions and, finally, class debates.

The teacher is counselled that speeches by students should be well prepared beforehand and delivered from brief notes only. In addition, it is suggested that the teacher direct students to select speech topics from subjects with which they have a particular familiarity. This, of course, is very familiar to American speech teachers, but it is a far cry from official directions to teachers in the other British Commonwealth countries.

One can witness, in the inclusion of sections on the teaching of proper breathing for speaking and in the use of the speech choir, the influence of some of the more modern British speech teachers. The attention to breathing suggests the philosophy of the Central School of Speech and Drama in London and of the Rose Bruford School of Speech and Drama; Marjorie Gullan and

Rose Bruford have done a great deal to popularize the speech choir in the countries of the British Commonwealth.

When one considers the emphasis that is now placed on speech in South African schools it is easy to appreciate the rise of speech and drama into full university status in South Africa. But it must be conceded that speech and drama have been part of university offerings for quite some time there: almost as long as they have been in the United States, in fact.

In 1929 the South African College of Music established a Department of Speech and Drama, with Miss Ruth Peffers as its Chairman. The College of Music was soon affiliated with the University of Cape Town and so the Speech and Drama Department had the unique distinction, in 1931, of being the first of its kind in a British university: a distinction which it is justifiably proud of.

Professor W. B. Bell, the Principal of the College of Music established a Little Theatre "primarily as an experimental and rehearsal theatre for the dramatic art students."⁵ In 1931 two productions were staged: *The Sea Gull* and *Hippolytus*. These were attended by about four hundred "season" subscribers. Today there are over four thousand subscribers for the Little Theatre's programs, and they are offered from fifteen to eighteen plays, operas and ballets a season.⁶

In 1946 the Department of Speech and Drama was re-housed in a building contiguous to the Little Theatre. In the same year it was incorporated in the Faculty of Arts of the university rather than in the Faculty of Music and its courses were acceptable towards the B.A. degree.

⁴ *Die Tale: Leerplanne en Wenke by die Onderwys* (The Languages: Syllabuses and Suggestions for the Consideration of Teachers). Department of Public Education, Cape of Good Hope. Cape Town, 1956. p. 189.

⁵ *Coming of Age*. Little Theatre, University of Cape Town, 1952, p. 2.

⁶ *Ibid. passim*.

The Department provides training in all the arts of the theatre, in radio broadcasting, and in the history and literature of drama. Recently, the South African Broadcasting Corporation and the Department developed a program for the training of radio-announcer-producers: a pioneer step in British-style education.

In the University of Cape Town the Department of Speech and Drama is under the chairmanship of Miss R. van der Gucht, who holds the Diploma in Dramatic Art of the University of London and the Diploma of the Central School of Speech and Drama in London. She has a faculty of six women lecturers, one of whom is a qualified speech correctionist.

The Department offers three courses in Speech and Drama. The first covers the theory, history and practice of Western European drama; the practice of drama today (a practical and technical-theatre course); voice and diction; and history of costume or stage lighting or radio and microphone techniques.

The second course—again, of one year's duration—covers remedial speech; history of costume from the seventeenth century; speech education methods; practical verse speaking and theatre work; practical workshops.

In the third course students study the history of the theatre and the drama; oral interpretation and dramatic production, and take student teaching.

A special diploma course is provided for school teachers who wish to take additional work in speech and drama: the diploma is recognized by the provincial Education Department for salary and promotions purposes. The fact that regular matriculation is required before entrance is granted to the course means that the Diploma is accorded full university recognition. In this diploma

course students study anatomy and physiology; voice production and choral speaking; phonetics; history of costume to the seventeenth century; practical theatre experience. In addition, classes in mime, Greek dancing, and acting Greek dancing, and acting techniques are obligatory.⁷

Elsewhere in South Africa speech receives the attention of the universities. At the University of the Witwatersrand in Johannesburg, the capital of the Transvaal, speech correction is offered. The university offers both courses towards the B.A. degree and a special three-year Diploma in Logopedics. The courses provided are essentially the same as those offered in speech correction departments in United States universities and colleges.

The University of Natal, at Durban, offers a one-year post-graduate Diploma in Play Production and also a two-year post-graduate Diploma in Speech Therapy, in addition to electives in Speech and Drama which may be offered towards the B.A. degree.

At Durban Miss Elizabeth Sneedon, a graduate of the University of Glasgow, is Professor and Head of the Department of Speech and Drama. Although Cape Town offers courses in Speech and Drama, Miss van der Gucht does not enjoy the title of professor there: so Miss Sneedon has a unique distinction, that of the only Professor of Speech and Drama in a British Commonwealth university. She has four women lecturers on her faculty.

At Durban the undergraduate courses are similar in content to those at Cape Town. Admission to the candidacy for the Diploma in Play Production, however, is highly competitive and is re-

⁷ *Handbook of the Faculties of Arts and Social Sciences*. University of Cape Town, 1958, *passim*.

stricted to holders of the B.A. in Speech and Drama. It is of M.A. standard.

Candidates for the diploma are required to make a study of the following areas: history and philosophy of the drama and theatre; theory and principles of dramatic criticism; interpretation of drama in terms of speech and movement; production-direction in the theatre and *both* a thesis production, complete with necessary logs and prompt books *and* a "thesis" which must establish the candidate's capacity for independent creative work in the theatre as well as his knowledge of research techniques for such work."⁸

The Diploma in Speech Therapy includes study of normal voice and speech, phonetics, psychology, speech pathology, speech therapeutics, clinical observation and practice and neurology. A minimum of forty clinical attendances must be

made and at least eighty clinical attendances made for the purposes of treating and observing the treatment of speech disorders and defects. The first forty attendances are intended to familiarize the student with clinical organization and administration.

It may be seen, then, that speech and drama have attained an enviable status in South Africa. In the public school systems speech has gained in importance to such a degree that it is actually regarded as more important than written expression; in the universities speech and drama have not only been accepted as the equal of the more commonly accepted academic courses, in terms of graduation for the B.A. degree, but are offered at the post-graduate level.

It is to be hoped that the universities in the other countries of the British Commonwealth will follow the example set by the universities in South Africa in the teaching of courses in speech and drama.

⁸*Handbook of the Faculties of Arts and Social Sciences*. University of Natal, Durban, 1958, p. 168.

THE SPEECH TEACHER IN AMERICAN INDUSTRY

Raymond K. Tucker

NO problem has claimed so much attention from industrial management—or raised so many new ones—as the problem of training supervisors to become effective communicators. Only a few years ago most executives assumed that so long as profits remained satisfactorily high, things must be going well. Why, they asked, worry about the “flow of communication”?

Today, some kind of speech training is part of the established educational program of hundreds of corporations. And the lessons taught are being earnestly practiced. But the process of communication is a difficult and exacting art. Management has had to learn many hard lessons. Experience has taught, for example, that to suppose the training director capable of developing and excuting the communications program simply because he happens to be training director is a shaky assumption. Corporations have learned that to pursue such a program they must hire a trained educator. The person most readily equipped to do the job is the college trained speech teacher. In a growing number of American industries he occupies an all-important position. He is

in what Professor Crocker has called the “new market.”¹ Moreover, it seems entirely likely that the major U. S. corporations will reach this state: a speech teacher in each training department.

“Should I go into industry?” I have been asked this question by many speech graduates, some holding a doctor’s degree, many more holding a bachelor’s or a master’s degree. In addition a number of my friends and colleagues have interrogated me at length about exactly what one does in the industrial communications field.

While I do not pretend that what I offer here is standard for all of industry, I think the information is representative of most of the larger companies—the top 200, for example, as listed in the annual *Fortune* directory.²

I must confess at the outset that I have not been entirely objective in my writing of this article. Intermingled with the “facts” are my own inferences, reactions, and opinions. It seems to me that a strict reporting of my observations would make for unnecessarily dull reading. Then, too, I assume that my personal feelings could be of interest to those contemplating the leap into industry. What follows, then, is based on what I experienced during my tenure as assistant director of education and training for The

The writer (Ph.D., Northwestern, 1956) is now Assistant Professor of Speech at the Western Illinois University (Macomb). He formerly taught adult classes at Purdue University (Calumet Center), and was assistant director of training and education for the United States Steel Corporation, Gary Indiana, Division. For the past few years he has also served as an industrial consultant for a number of major United States industries, principally in the establishment of communications courses for executive development programs.

¹ Lionel Crocker, “A New Market for Teachers of Speech,” *The Speech Teacher*, V, 4 (November, 1956), 266-270.

² See “The *Fortune* Directory. The 500 Largest U. S. Industrial Corporations,” *Fortune*, LX, 1 (July, 1959), 125-144.

United States Steel Corporation, Gary, Indiana.

The Work. No speech teacher who has ever worked for a large corporation needs to be reminded that there is a vast difference between the job description and the job performance. While he may feel that he was hired primarily to teach, our industrial speech teacher may find himself involved in a wide diversity of activities. Should his position classify him as management, moreover, he may become quite concerned that teaching, as time passes, is occupying less and less of his time. Finally, should he be promoted to assistant or to company training director—distinct possibilities—his teaching days may be over. His efforts will then be directed to the monumental task of administering the training programs.

A training department has many of the corporation's problems dumped squarely into its lap. Some of these problems—in fact many of them—can be handled by the speech trained man. This ability stems mainly, I believe, from the broad educational background of most people in this field. Other problems of the company will seem, to our speech man, outside his professional domain. Still, he will be expected to assume responsibility in these areas. What might they include? Possibly some of these: training foremen in safety, designing and conducting attitude surveys, directing trade apprentice programs, executing the first aid training program, writing safety manuals, organizing and maintaining reading rack programs, and directing on-the-job training. The list could be expanded.

The Teaching Part of Your Job. Most industrial speech teaching occurs in two distinct settings. The first: integrated programs of management development. The second: courses, something like two

hours a week for six weeks. Depending on the company, the first area—the management development program—will unquestionably be the source of greater satisfaction to the speech teacher. The reason is clear: more time is allocated to the study of communication. You may have an entire week to work with a class of 30 men. Typically the emphasis is the straight public speaking approach. Your job: "Teach these men how to get on their feet and express themselves."

Discussion, or a study of conference techniques, is another area of considerable interest to American industry today. In addition, there has recently developed an alarming concern over the growing frequency of communication breakdowns.³ Here the speech teacher's concern is with the area of general semantics. Another subject, current and popular: creative thinking and "brainstorming."

The second approach—the packaged speech course—(two hours a week for six weeks)—is frequently in demand by specific departments within a given plant. A division superintendent observes that certain of his supervisors are particularly inept at giving instructions. He cites many examples to show that this deficiency is costing the company many thousands of dollars yearly. He asks your advice on the kind of training needed. You decide and advise him. He sets up the time and place: Thursday from 9 a. m. to 11 a. m. for the next six weeks at the divisional training classroom.

This is a standard practice in industry. These small, packaged courses are constantly in operation. Underlying this common practice is the assumption that so long as they are exposed to the teacher, though there be little or no

³ Industry's most persistent and malignant problem.

time for classroom practice, this training will solve the supervisor's particular communication problem.

This assumption, unfortunately for the teacher, the supervisor, and the company, happens to be groundless. Proficiency in any phase of communication comes from integrating theory and practice. A minimum amount of time is required for the practice sessions. Effective communication habits simply cannot be acquired through quick methods. On this point Leland P. Bradford has spoken:

... new behavior needs to be practiced before taking it back to the job. If the individual has any insecurity concerning his capabilities in trying something new out on the job, he will usually regress to old and more tried ways of behavior. Many a training program in *communications* has turned out to be ineffective, not because the individual did not "learn" but because he didn't make it part of himself to a point where he had sufficient competency to put it to work back on the job.⁴

The People You Teach. In most of the major corporations the speech teacher's concern will be with the training of management personnel only. Typically included in management is everyone from the highest executive in residence to the turn foreman, the man who supervises hourly paid workers (non-management). Most of the men you teach will be veterans in their particular plants. Many still have a meager formal education. A growing number will be college graduates. College trained or not, all of them will be members of the human race and, with the usual exceptions, will react to you positively. They will accord you the same respect that you accord them. The majority will welcome

speech training. They know from painful experience the real value of and need for skill in communication and will deeply appreciate your efforts to help them. Now and then—of course—you will run across someone who thinks that speech, or any other type of training, is so much nonsense. But this is in the nature of things for the industrial speech teacher.

Hours. The 40-hour work week is standard in industry as a whole but not necessarily for management. And it probably won't be standard for you if you assume the role of speech teacher in American industry. Including the time you may devote to evening classes, preparation, and "extra-curricular" duties, your work week may, to a remarkable degree, resemble that of the typical American high school teacher. Rarely, as in most academic settings, will your day end when you leave the plant. Regardless, you will be expected to be at your desk promptly at 8 a. m. and remain there until 5 p. m. To the college teacher accustomed to showing up at a leisurely 11 a. m. this schedule may seem a bit rough. An adjustment is required, but it usually comes quickly.

Vacations. Most management people are given a paid three-week vacation every year. After a period of time, in some cases 20 years, the vacation time is increased to four weeks. In addition you may be free on Thanksgiving, Christmas, and other legal holidays. These, of course, are not extended vacations. Christmas off means just that—December 25th, not December 20th to January 5th, as in the case of educational institutions.

Compensation. Frequently the first question the prospective industrial speech teacher asks is: "How is the pay?" This question is understandable. One answer may be that the pay is good—or

⁴ From a speech before the top management of U. S. Steel's Gary steel works entitled "Conditions for Effective Training," January 21, 1957. Leland P. Bradford is director of the National Training Laboratory in Group Development, Bethel, Maine.

that it is inadequate—depending, to a large extent, on the applicant's expectations. If we face the facts, as we must in any profession, it usually depends on the credentials of the job seeker. Several factors—the man's ambition, his qualifications, and the responsibilities he will be expected to assume—these determine his basic rate of pay. In general, it may be safely stated that the field of compensation has become such a jungle of complications that to venture a guess about pay for specific industrial teaching positions would be a hapless, meaningless venture. But I am willing to try.

Let us assume that our applicant has a brand new Ph.D. and three years' teaching experience. United States Steel might offer him \$600 to \$650 a month. The work and payment would be on a twelve month basis. To this basic salary might be added management incentive earnings, which could easily boost the overall annual income to over \$9000 in a good steel production year. Some smaller companies might offer a straight \$6000 per year. If armed with a bachelor's degree, or a master's, the starting pay would probably be fifteen to twenty-five per cent less than that of the person with the doctorate. It would probably be equivalent to the salary one would receive in a typical high school system.

One thing is certain. The notion—which I find quite prevalent—that the speech teacher can walk into industry and command a very high salary is unfounded. I think it would be rare indeed to find any but the most highly respected scholar—with considerable teaching and consulting experience—commanding a salary high in the five figure bracket. Large industries have mammoth payrolls. All costs, including salaries, are under continuous and close scrutiny.

"*Academic Freedom.*" In your teaching, you can expect complete freedom.

After all, you will be looked upon as an expert. Rarely will anyone dictate course content to you. Of course, your immediate superior may have suggestions as to what approach a given course should take and what it should accomplish. But, in general, there are very few restrictions.

While we are on the subject of restrictions, we might explore a sensitive area which is neither thoroughly understood nor highly publicized. Depending on the industry, you may—oddly enough—find your own freedom of speech rather decisively curtailed. While you may once have accepted invitations to speak in public without consulting anyone, you will learn quickly that all such public utterances must now be cleared well in advance with the corporation's main office. U. S. Steel, for example, maintains a staff at its Pittsburgh headquarters whose task it is to scrutinize and approve, or disapprove, all speeches. This requirement for approval applies also to prospective discussion panelists and to those who might make comments from the floor. Such a policy toward controlling communication to the public stems from the idea that the words of any management member may be interpreted as the official policy of the company. Not every major corporation, however, feels that this control is necessary or desirable. The problem was well stated recently in a brief article entitled "Boom in Speechmaking" appearing in *Time*:

What businessmen can talk about best, they talk about least: the issues confronting their own businesses. Complains President George S. Dively of Harris-Intertype Corp.: "My lawyers tell me I must not say this or that—it might get us in trouble with Antitrust or the union, with the customers or the stockholders." Thus most speeches are prepared in committee, with lawyers, admen, public relations men at hand to ax anything that could possibly offend any-

one. Their rule of thumb: "If in doubt, be vague." The average speech is wrung through five or six drafts, gets worse each time.

The best approach, says Steelman [Clarence] Randall, is for the speaker to discuss frankly his own business problems and philosophies. "Let him stand up and say precisely what he said to his seat mate on the 8:04 this morning, disagreeable as the results may be in terms of public relations."⁵

The Future? What of tomorrow? What types of speech programs will management push? A better question: Will communications still be of concern to American business and industry? Answer: Yes! I base this on a major finding: most industrial problems are in fact problems of communication. The problems continue to grow in number; they continue to grow in complexity. While industry does seem to be afflicted with the habit of engaging in crash programs in the promotion of new educational ventures, it is quite heartwarming to note that communications training continues to grow. There is no reason to suspect that like many of the panaceas that were once promoted, then promptly forgotten, industrial management will one day look upon such communications training as "one of the flags once flown."

"Should I go into industry?" There

are, to be sure, no pat answers. The only valid answers are those that our speech teacher will find for himself. Some will join the industrial ranks for the experience, for the seasoning. Then they will return to the high school classroom or the college campus. It is my opinion that a few years with industry can provide the speech teacher with a new, enlarged perspective, regardless of the type of teaching position he later assumes.

There is opportunity, there is challenge; there is satisfaction.

In his foreword to Redfield's *Communication in Management* John L. McCaffrey, President of International Harvester, writes:

The executive needs help. Above everything, he needs orientation. His responsibilities for communication are identical with his other responsibilities, in the sense that they involve the three classic executive duties of planning, organization and control. But before he can discharge these functions, he must get a grasp of the general field of communication, of the available techniques, of the particular communication problems of his own business. He must know enough about the fundamentals of communication so that he can set realistic goals and evaluate the results.

Where is he to turn for the help he needs?⁶

To the speech teacher!

⁶ Charles E. Redfield, *Communication in Management*, Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1953, pp. vii-viii.

⁵ "Boom in Speechmaking," *Time*, LXXV, 6 (February 8, 1960), 84.

FAIR PLAY, THE FIFTH AMENDMENT, AND THE TEACHER OF SPEECH

George W. Dell

I

PROBABLY no part of the Bill of Rights has been more "controversial" during the 1950's than this section, "No person . . . shall be compelled in any criminal case to be a witness against himself. . . ." The term "Fifth Amendment Communist" was frequently heard from the late Senator Joseph McCarthy. The implication was that every person who used the Amendment was a Communist. For several years one has read newspaper stories of numerous individuals invoking the self-incrimination clause before Congressional Committees, some of them more than one-hundred times.

What inferences can be legitimately drawn from the use of this constitutional privilege? Some persons, including attorneys, say there is a presumption of guilt when the Fifth Amendment is used; others point out that since the Amendment is designed to protect both the innocent and the guilty, no adverse inference should be drawn without considering the rest of the relevant evidence.

One may ask the question "What is the significance of the Fifth Amendment to the teacher of speech?" Surely those teachers whose livelihood depends on the daily exercise of the rights of freedom of speech in the classroom should know the fundamental concept concern-

ing those rights. Traditionally the First Amendment has been our free speech section of the Bill of Rights; however, as Dean Griswold of the Harvard Law School reminds us, there is a close relationship of the constitutional rights and privileges of a person under both the First and Fifth Amendments.¹ These concepts of the Bill of Rights are complex, but we have a professional obligation not only to know them ourselves, but to be able to communicate them so that our students understand them whenever a discussion on the amendments or academic freedom arises. This paper attempts to deal with the Fifth Amendment and its relation to academic freedom.

How serious is the problem of teachers invoking the Fifth Amendment? The *Christian Science Monitor* reports that, during the hearings of Velde and Jenner Committees in 1953, seventy-four of the one-hundred-forty-six witnesses testifying in the area of education invoked the Fifth. There were forty-two college professors who refused to testify against themselves; five were retained; three resigned; one lost tenure, although he was still employed; five were suspended; twelve cases were pending; fourteen were dismissed; one annual appointment was not rewarded, and another employee was notified that he was no longer needed.² Thus, thirty-three per cent

The writer discusses certain aspects of academic freedom related to the college teacher and his use of the Fifth Amendment. He is instructor of Speech at the University of California (Los Angeles). He completed his Ph.D. at U.S.C. in 1959.

¹ Irwin N. Griswold, *The Fifth Amendment Today* (Cambridge, 1955), pp. 8-9, 60-61.

² Robert M. Hallett, "Teacher Fate Varies in Probes," July 21, 1953.

were dismissed, though there may have been grounds other than the use of the privilege.

The precedent for university dismissals was set at Rutgers University³ when that institution fired two of its professors, effective December 31, 1952, for using the Fifth Amendment before the Jenner Subcommittee earlier in the year. A faculty Committee of Review containing five members, appointed by the Trustees and the President, had recommended unanimously that both professors be retained in their positions in history and physics. The Board of Trustees passed a resolution for immediate dismissal of any faculty member using the Fifth Amendment before any duly constituted investigating board or judicial proceeding relating to past or present Communist Party membership.⁴ The Jenner Subcommittee reported, "In all but a few of the cases before the subcommittee, the university officials and local authorities suspended the teachers who invoked their privilege. . . ."⁵

The late social psychologist Kurt Lewin declared that one of the leading characteristics of the American culture is the belief in "fair play." It seems obvious that those who teach or administer in colleges should exemplify this quality if they are to discharge their obligation as defenders of academic freedom. The cases of professors who have invoked the Fifth Amendment before Congressional Committees significantly relates to academic freedom and our sense of justice or "fair play."

³ Harold Taylor, "The Dismissal of Fifth Amendment Professors," *The Annals of The American Academy of Political and Social Science*, CCC (July, 1955), p. 83.

⁴ "Academic Freedom and Tenure in the Quest for National Security," *The American Association of University Professors Bulletin*, XLII (Spring, 1956), pp. 77-78.

⁵ Alan Barth, *Government by Investigation* (New York, 1955), p. 171.

This paper attempts to raise three fundamental questions pertaining to the Fifth Amendment. (1) What are the alternatives confronting an individual claiming the privilege before a Congressional Committee? (2) Should a professor who declines to testify against himself be automatically fired? (3) Is there likely to be violation of due process of law if a hearing before educational peers is not afforded the professor before he is dismissed?

II

Three alternatives are open to a professor who claims the privileges of the Fifth Amendment when called before a Congressional Committee investigating Communism in the colleges. He can invoke the Amendment without testifying against himself, be cited for contempt, or be charged with perjury. If he has never been a Communist or associated with any, he can simply answer all the questions put to him. If he has been a former member he may clear himself by honestly answering the committee's questions. However, if he is asked to name the people with whom he associated, who in his opinion are not now Communists so far as he knows, he faces a dilemma. If he has answered questions about his own membership he probably has waived the privilege and will face the problem of contempt of Congress or be trapped into perjury.⁶ This has been the case since 1951 when the Supreme Court handed down a decision regarding waiver in *Rogers vs. U. S.* In a dissent written by Justice Black, he said:

"... On the one hand, they (witnesses) risk imprisonment for contempt by asserting the privilege prematurely; on the other, they might lose the privilege if they answer a single question. The Court's view makes the protection depend

⁶ Harold Taylor, *op. cit.*, p. 82.

on timing so refined that lawyers, let alone laymen, will have difficulty in knowing when to claim it.⁷

Fortunately the Supreme Court has rendered another decision which clarifies the waiver privilege somewhat. By a 5-4 decision in 1956, Justices Clark, Douglas, Black, Warren, and Frankfurter expressed this opinion in the words of Justice Clark in *Harry Slochower vs. Board of Higher Education of New York City*:

The privilege against self-incrimination would be reduced to a hollow mockery if its exercise could be taken as equivalent either to a confession of guilt or a conclusive presumption of perjury. As we pointed out in *Ullman*, a witness may have a reasonable fear of prosecution and yet be innocent of any wrongdoing. The privilege serves to protect the innocent who otherwise might be ensnared by ambiguous circumstances. See *Griswold, The Fifth Amendment Today* (1955).⁸

Chief Justice Warren's majority opinion in the 6-1 decision in the John Watkins case indirectly raised the question of the "waiver privilege," while dealing primarily with the First Amendment and the "due process" clause of the Fifth.⁹ Watkins had refused to name former associates whom he believed were no longer Communists, in a hearing before the House Un-American Activities Committee. Warren's majority opinion is quoted in part below:

Abuses of the investigative process [by Congressional committees] may imperceptibly lead to abridgment of protected freedoms. [Freedoms of speech, press, religion, or political belief or association were mentioned in an earlier part of the decision.] The mere summoning of a witness and compelling him to testify, against his will, about his beliefs, expressions or associations is a measure of governmental interference. And when those forced revelations con-

cern matters that are unorthodox, unpopular, or even hateful to the general public, the reaction in the life of the witness may be disastrous.

This effect is even more harsh when it is past beliefs, expressions, or associations that are disclosed and judged by current standards rather than those contemporary with the matters exposed. Nor does the witness alone suffer the consequences. Those who are identified by witnesses and thereby placed in the same glare of publicity are equally subject to public stigma, scorn and obloquy.

Beyond that, there is the subtle and immeasurable effect upon those who tend to adhere to the most orthodox and uncontroversial views in order to avoid a similar fate at some future time. That this impact is partly the result of non-governmental activity by private persons cannot relieve the investigators of their responsibility for initiating the action. . . . We have no doubt that there is no congressional power to expose for the sake of exposure. . . .¹⁰

Probably the person who declines to name his associates that he believes are not Communists will face a moral dilemma. If he will not give the committee names, as was the case of writer Arthur Miller whose conviction on one count of contempt is currently under appeal, he will probably be cited for contempt. The maximum penalty for this is one year in jail and a \$1,000 fine. The individual teacher will have to weigh these circumstances against the qualms of his conscience. Professor Sidney Hook advocates that a teacher of this type should risk martyrdom by facing contempt; however, as Dean Griswold points out, it is easier to urge this course than to undertake it, especially when considering the costs of a trial and the stigma a man's family will likely be forced to endure.

There are some who argue people working for the government or teaching place themselves in the circumstances where they may be properly discharged if they use the Fifth Amendment; the

⁷ Telford Taylor, *Grand Inquest* (New York, 1955), pp. 200-201.

⁸ *Decisions of the Supreme Court of the United States*, Lawyers' Edition, Vol. C, p. 700.

⁹ *Time*, LXX (July 1, 1957), pp. 15-16.

¹⁰ *U. S. News & World Report*, XLII (June 28, 1957), p. 35.

reasoning is that the public confidence in the government worker or teacher is undermined by the use of the self-incrimination clause, when a civil servant should inspire trust, not suspicion, in the eyes of the public. In fact, the Court wrote this as a part of the majority opinion in the *Slochower* case. "A person doesn't have a right to government employment though he must comply with reasonable, lawful, and nondiscriminatory terms laid down by proper authorities."¹¹ Much the same situation would apparently operate by analogy in the case of a teacher.

Attorney C. Dickerman Williams of the New York State Bar argues a somewhat similar interpretation. He maintains a person who accepts public employment gives an implied or expressed assent to waive the use of the self-incrimination clause.¹² Naturally, there are problems of legal interpretation between rights and privileges. However, it would seem to the present author that under the above interpretation of the uses of the Fifth Amendment, a teacher's constitutional right to employ the Fifth would be contravened by the loss of the privilege of working as a teacher, in all probability the occupation in which he could best gain his livelihood and serve the interests of society.

Justice Black wrote in *Halperin vs. U. S.*:

"I can think of no special circumstances that would justify use of a constitutional privilege to discredit or convict a person who asserts it. The value of these constitutional privileges is largely destroyed, if persons can be penalized for relying on them."¹³

One may conclude then, that there is substantial evidence to indicate the committees wish to have as many people as possible use the Fifth Amendment in public sessions.¹⁴ Frequently persons who do not use the Fifth are not given any hearing other than in executive session. Thus, a teacher who disapproves of the committee's methods may be playing into its hands by invoking the amendment. The more public officials who use the Fifth, the greater the publicity for the committee. Are we teachers of speech aware of these issues and their complexities?

III

Should a professor who declines to testify against himself be automatically fired? The author would answer "No," and suggest that other evidence must be used as the basis for firing. The Association of American Universities said in March, 1953, "We welcome investigations. . . ." President Harold Taylor of Sarah Lawrence College points out this is an abdication of educational responsibility simply because the university presidents do not rely on their faculties; rather, they seem to prefer the judgment of politicians who often practice political trickery and ill intent in deciding who is qualified to be a member of a college or university faculty.¹⁵

The American Civil Liberties Union reminds us, "The refusal of a teacher to answer questions put by a legislative committee does not in itself constitute substantial evidence of perversion of the academic process."¹⁶

The eighth general principle of the American Association of University Pro-

¹¹ *Decisions of the Supreme Court*, Vol. C, p. 699.

¹² "Problems of the Fifth Amendment," *Fordham Law Review*, XXIV (Spring, 1955), pp. 51-52.

¹³ *Civil Liberties*, June, 1957.

¹⁴ *Grand Inquest*, *op. cit.*, p. 199.

¹⁵ Harold Taylor, *op. cit.*, p. 80.

¹⁶ "Academic Freedom and Academic Responsibility," *The American Association of University Professors Bulletin*, XLII (Autumn, 1956), p. 527.

fessors concerning procedural due process in tenure cases follows:

... Whenever charges are made against a faculty member with a view to his removal, he has a right to a fair hearing, to a judgment by his academic peers before adverse action is taken, and to a decision based on evidence. . . .

... It is an important safeguard that whatever procedure is used should be one that the faculty of the institution has itself endorsed it prior to the occurrence of the case. . . .

... the burden of proof should rest upon the administrative officer bringing the charge, and should not be placed on the faculty member, whether he is being heard for invoking the Fifth Amendment or for other reasons. . . .¹⁷

The above report was made by a committee of eight, including three professors of law. This committee also reported dismissal should come only after a consideration of a teacher's professional fitness to carry on his instructional duties.¹⁸ His reliance on a constitutional privilege surely should not be the sole criterion for his dismissal.

Pennsylvania Lawyer Edward Dummbauld reports in his forthcoming book, "American principles of fair play discountenance attempts to condemn a person by compelling him to disgrace his own transgressions." "Telford Taylor sums it up well by saying '... the privilege against self-accusation operates before it is known whether the witness is innocent or guilty.'"²⁰ [italics in the original.]

It would seem that applications of justice and "fair play" in academic institutions would demand that the teacher be given a hearing before his educational peers after invoking the Fifth Amendment. The author believes the professor's colleagues are the best qualified to ascertain his fitness to remain on the

faculty. Harvard, the University of Connecticut, and Sarah Lawrence College provide precedents for this action.

IV

One may ask a final question, "Is there likely to be a violation of 'due process of law' if a hearing is not afforded the professor before he is fired? The answer of the Supreme Court in the *Slochower* case seems to be an affirmative one. President Taylor, Professor Hook, Alan Barth, and the American Association of University Professors all agree that a hearing of educational peers should follow the use of the self-accusation clause.

Prior to the discussion of some of the safeguards a professor should have in testimony before his educational peers, it may be worth-while to state the American Association of Universities before 1953 statement in part:

'As in all acts of association, the professor accepts conventions which become morally binding. Above all, he owes his colleagues in the university complete candor and perfect integrity, precluding any kind of clandestine or conspiratorial activities. He owes equal candor to the public. . . .'²¹

Professor Clark Byse of the University of Pennsylvania Law School offers this comment, though it was originally given in a different context:

'The automatic-dismissal approach violates the basic principle of academic freedom. . . . There can be no doubt that, however much one may deplore the widespread use of the Fifth Amendment, the exercise of this constitutional privilege is not in every instance an indication either of criminality or moral delinquency. Nor is it a reflection on the witness's competence as a teacher.'²²

There are several reactions which can be made to the "complete candor and perfect integrity" clause of the Associa-

¹⁷ *AAUP Bulletin* (Spring, 1956), *op. cit.*, pp. 59-60.

¹⁸ *Ibid.*, p. 58.

¹⁹ April 8, 1957, p. 23.

²⁰ *Grand Inquest*, *op. cit.*, p. 197.

²¹ *Government by Investigation*, *op. cit.*, p. 172.

²² *Loc. cit.*

tion of American Universities' statement. Since men are not perfect, it probably is unfair to require perfect integrity of professors, ideal as this may be. Second, the evidence given before a faculty committee is not privileged and the interrogators might later be forced to testify about the faculty hearing, thus in effect removing the self-incrimination guarantee.²³ However, the AAUP believes this risk should be taken so that the institution can evaluate a professor's fitness satisfactorily. Third, if the public does not understand the need for the independence of colleges in protecting academic freedom against tremendous social and political pressures, an individual might be morally justified in testifying with less than "complete candor."

What are relevant and proper questions the faculty committee should ask the user of the Fifth Amendment?²⁴ Certainly they should not ask questions concerning his personal thoughts, beliefs, and private associations.²⁵ The State Attorney General of New Hampshire asked questions concerning the content of a lecture delivered by Paul M. Sweezy at the University of New Hampshire. Chief Justice Warren, in a 6-2 decision, wrote that this was an invasion of academic freedom and political expression; he stated, "To impose any strait jacket upon the intellectual leaders in our colleges and universities would imperil the future of our nation."²⁶ This is an eloquent defense of a university or college as a center of independent thought and criticism.

The test of fitness to teach should not

be based on political beliefs. Dean Rostow of the Yale Law School argues a similar position concerning the national security program, stating that employment should be based on the suitability for a particular job.²⁷ Some legitimate questions might be: Does the professor attempt to indoctrinate his students in the ideals of the Communist Party? Have his actions around his colleagues and in the classroom demonstrated that he is honest and does he have the integrity to teach his subject competently?

A final suggestion regarding the membership of the faculty committee may be in order. Since the specific charges against a professor should be brought forward by an administrator, it may be advisable not to have an administrator on the actual committee. The reason would be simply that the prosecution normally does not decide the case in legal proceedings. Secondly, there may be community pressures on the administrative officer which would hinder his objective thinking, particularly in a tax-supported school. President Taylor sums up the entire situation well in his statement that each ". . . case should be judged on its individual merits through the regular faculty procedures with standards applied by a constituted faculty committee."²⁸ The present author has faith in the "fair play" of a group of professors even in the face of the stigmas relating to the use of the Fifth Amendment by one of their colleagues. After all, the faculty committee acts as a fact-finding committee which significantly relates to due process.

We teachers of speech might well remember, practice, and remind our colleagues in other departments of the res-

²³ Harold Taylor, *op. cit.*, p. 84; *AAUP Bulletin* (Spring, 1956), *op. cit.*, p. 60.

²⁴ Robert M. Hutchins, "The Meaning and Significance of Academic Freedom," *The Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science*, CCC (July, 1955), p. 74.

²⁵ *AAUP Bulletin* (Spring, 1956), *op. cit.*, p. 99.

²⁶ *U. S. News & World Report*, *op. cit.*, p. 38.

²⁷ "Needed: a Rational Security Program," *Harper's Magazine*, CCXV (July, 1957), pp. 36-37.

²⁸ Harold Taylor, *On Education and Freedom* (New York, 1954), p. 288.

olutions adopted by SAA in 1952 and Delta Sigma Rho in 1956. The former read in part:

We condemn loose charges of guilt by association, allegations of guilt without proof, the use of committees to suggest guilt without proper trial, and the reversal of the American tradition of the burden of proof wherein a person accused is presumed innocent until proved guilty.²⁹

The Congress of Delta Sigma Rho resolved that "Appeal to the Fifth Amendment in and of itself should not be deemed sufficient grounds for dismissal of academic personnel."³⁰

Administrators, teachers of speech, and other professors, above all, should practice this type of fair play in order to point the way to traditional freedoms for society at large. Chet Huntley, the noted news analyst, warns against the tendency of the culture to count the number of times the Fifth Amendment is used, rather than to debate the issues concerning it.³¹ Let us hope that teach-

ers contribute significantly to this knowledge and debate.

Teachers of speech should uphold academic freedom and free speech not only due to the demands of their institutions and profession but because "every person in the country has a stake" in it.³² The recent Supreme Court decisions have pointed the way to preservation of free speech; let us make certain we uphold and extend the tradition in the classroom.

Perhaps we need to be reminded of some old American ideals. The words of a distinguished attorney of New York, John Lord O'Brien, should be remembered:

... It is also well to bear in mind that for the average citizen the guarantees of the Bill of Rights are definitely moral principles: for him they mean the difference between right and wrong. The Constitution and the Bill of Rights do have a definite ethical content. Taken together, these qualities of conviction and applied conscience have produced that extraordinary and distinctive characteristic of the Americans—their sense of fair play.³³

²⁹ "Freedom and Security," *The Quarterly Journal of Speech*, XXXIX (February, 1953), pp. 93-94.

³⁰ "A Resolution Concerning Academic Freedom in a Democracy," *The Gavel*, XXXVIII (May, 1956), p. 122.

³¹ Chet Huntley, "Commentator Views TV News Growth," *Los Angeles Mirror News*, September 5, 1957.

³² John W. Caughey, *In Clear and Present Danger* (Chicago, 1958), p. 141.

³³ John Lord O'Brien, *National Security and Individual Freedom* (Cambridge, 1955), pp. 74-75.

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The following constitutional amendment was passed by a vote of 1,035 to 76.

Amend Article IX, Section 6, Line 18, concerning membership in the Executive Committee of the Legislative Assembly by inserting after the phrase "term of two years" the following: "If a member of the Assembly shall be elected to the Executive Committee to serve during the final year of his membership in the Assembly, he shall serve for the one year only and by the procedure set forth in the By-Laws (Article III, Section 5) the Assembly Nominating Committee shall provide for the unexpired term."

BOOK REVIEWS

Donald H. Ecroyd, *Editor*

Some interesting pamphlets have come to my attention in recent weeks. For example, available from the Superintendent of Documents, United States Government Printing Office, Washington 25, D. C., is *Conference Leadership*, a Department of Air Force manual which sells for \$1.50. (catalog No. D 307.7:50-8). It is well done, and seems highly practical. Available from Polaroid Corporation, Cambridge 39, Massachusetts, is *On Your Feet*, a delightfully illustrated little booklet about using visual aids—camera-product type, of course. I picked mine up in my local camera store free of charge. Harold P. Zelko has again done a fine job of concise, interesting writing in *How to be a Better Listener*, which is a Help-Your-Self Booklet, available at small cost. The address is 13 East 53rd Street, New York 22, New York. The illustrations in this one are by Van Schreiber, and are clever as well as apt. Booklets such as these are highly useful, I feel, as classroom aids—especially in the course slanted at students preparing themselves for business careers. General Motors, the A.F.L.-C.I.O., and many other groups have such materials and my experience has been that they are happy to have you examine and use them.

COURSE IN GENERAL LINGUISTICS. By Ferdinand deSaussure. New York: Philosophical Library, Inc., 1959; pp. 312. \$6.00.

THE HISTORY AND ORIGIN OF LANGUAGE. By A. S. Diamond. New York: Philosophical Library, Inc., 1959; pp. 280. \$7.50.

GENERAL SEMANTICS: A GUIDE TO BETTER LIVING. By Clarence L. Meader and the late John H. Muyskens. Published by Herbert C. Weller, Toledo Speech Clinic, Inc., 630 West Woodruff at Scottwood, Toledo, Ohio, 1959; pp. 173. \$7.50.

Most classroom teachers do not have the opportunity to teach courses in the areas which these writings discuss, yet most classes would be better taught if more of us knew more about these areas. Linguistics and general semantics

both have much to tell us about oral discourse. The hard core of classical doctrine has been almost uninterruptedly taught for 2500 years or more, despite advances in learning which would seem to pertain. One is reminded of the tradition of the difficulty of conquering China, for every wave of critical approach to Aristotelian dogma seems ultimately to be absorbed or to collapse. When we reject new approaches, however, we place ourselves in the danger so cogently discussed by Suzanne Langer in *Philosophy in a New Key*—the danger of always getting the same answers about life because we persist in always asking the same questions. These three books are provocative, in some cases erudite, yet for the most part clear and specific. All are clearly worth reading and study.

DONALD H. ECROYD

THE PSYCHOLOGY OF PERSUASIVE SPEECH. By Robert T. Oliver. (second edition) New York: Longman Green and Company, 1957; pp. 465. \$5.00.

Instead of the promised third volume designed to assist in research in the field, the author has combined his *Persuasive Speaking* (1950), planned to serve as a first course, with his first edition (1942) of *The Psychology of Persuasive Speech*, written for more advanced study of persuasion, to form a single volume. This combination and condensation might as well be labeled a second edition of the 1950 text, since more than half its chapters are taken directly from that publication.

The many teachers who have found the former volumes useful will welcome this combination. The author keeps the same approach to persuasion as in the two previous texts with the excellent illustrative speech situations drawn from his own extensive teaching and practical experience. The lists of readings have been brought up to date, but the changes in the text itself are not extensive. The flamboyant cover and the rather drab appearance of the text with the omission of any pictures seem

hardly in keeping with the psychological principles so well expressed by the author.

BROOKS QUIMBY
Bates College
Lewiston, Maine

THE ANNOUNCER'S HANDBOOK (rev. edition). By Ben Graf Henneke and Edward S. Dumit. New York: Rinehart & Company, Inc., 1959; pp. v+293.

In *The Announcer's Handbook*, authors Ben Henneke and Edward Dumit have assumed one of two things: (1) either the student already has had a course in which he became familiar with the various types of microphones and their usage, or, (2) the instructor himself, will take the responsibility for familiarizing the student with the various types of microphones and their usage.

Regardless of which may be the case, the authors have begun with the original Henneke *Radio Announcer's Handbook* and have done a very excellent piece of editing. They have retained only those specifics relative to radio announcing which are of most importance, and to these they have added certain specifics, basic needs and qualifications which are essential to only the TV announcer and which are different from those things which are important to only the radio announcer.

For the disciples of Radio-TV announcing, here is a book which deals in specifics. The authors get to the point without any lengthy generalities or padding. The book is not cluttered with useless photographs of microphones or TV cameras. It is a book in which tried and proven theory is expounded, coupled with numerous sample scripts and copy of all types, which the student can use in his practical application of theory. It is important to mention that the sample scripts and copy are examples that have been used by net systems, large affiliate stations and stations at the local level. These materials cover both Radio and TV and have been carefully selected to enable the student of Radio-TV announcing to acquire a clear picture of the varied types of materials the announcer will be required to handle during any broadcast day.

The Announcer's Handbook is divided into two parts. Part one contains four chapters devoted to the announcer's work, qualifications, skills, and *ad libbing*. Part two contains a variety of materials for both Radio and TV, such as commercials or all types, dramatic nar-

rations, openings and closings for drama, news-casts, sports re-creation, musical programs, etc. There are thirty some types of different drill materials found in this section. Each drill is designed to cover a specific area of Radio-TV announcing, such as conversational drill, continuity drill, phrasing drill, mood creation, foreign language drill, women's continuity drill, music, etc.

Finally, and certainly of great importance to both student and instructor, is the fact that the book is a paper-bound type with perforated pages to enable the student to remove any practice copy from the book. Because of this format, it is possible for him to hold in hand an exact reproduction of the copy as it would be found in any station announcer's book.

TOM C. BATTIN
University of Houston

THE BASES OF SPEECH. Third Edition. By Giles Wilkeson Gray and Claude Merton Wise. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1959; pp. xiii+562. \$6.00.

For the second time in the twenty-five years since its initial publication, this substantial and comprehensive text has undergone major change. The basic rationale underlying the issuance of this revision was a felt need on the part of the authors to incorporate significant contributions of the past twelve years into the body of knowledge contained in the work.

In prefacing the third edition, Gray and Wise point out that *The Bases of Speech* was first written "to provide as broad an understanding as possible of the nature and function of speech in order that one might base upon that understanding a rational process of improvement in the oral aspects of communication." In this original frame of reference, the book was conceived as a fundamentals text and designed for use in basic speech courses. It has however, in its subsequent development, evolved as an expository volume more aptly suited to the needs of upper-level undergraduate students and those engaged in graduate studies.

The first notable change to be found in the present revision centers around the initial chapter, "The Social Basis of Speech." This portion of the book has been greatly expanded to focus more clearly upon the cultural and societal implications of oral communication than did the earlier editions. Likewise, much has been added to the section dealing with the physical of "mechanical" aspects of speech. The

chapter concerned with the neurological basis of speech has been completely rewritten, and the treatment of the psychological foundations of speaking, listening, and thinking has been enlarged quite admirably through the inclusion of recent research findings.

One entirely new area, not covered in the previous two editions, is discussed in this revision of *The Bases of Speech*. This is a most valuable addition to the book, dealing with *descriptive linguistics, linguistic geography, languages of the world, and language change*. The approach to these subjects is broad and inclusive. They are treated historically, analytically, and semantically with a great deal of scholarly depth and breadth. In short, the chapter, "The Linguistic Basis of Speech," is a professionally significant block of valuable knowledge in and of itself. Added to that which precedes and follows it, this supplementary material gives new stature to an already impressive volume.

Much could be written lauding this book, but the truest measure of its merit lies in its acceptance and application in the field. The first two editions have become an essential item in the personal reference library of teacher, student, and clinical worker alike. The third edition will provide an even more complete treatment of the basic foundations of the speech act with the added benefit of the best of recent study and thought in the field.

The Bases of Speech is unique in concept and structure and merits the attention and study of any individual seeking a broad and intensive coverage of the fundamental dimensions of oral communication in our contemporary culture. We respectfully submit and recommend this latest revision for professional scrutiny and consideration!

LYNN R. OSBORN
University of Kansas

THE STAGE AND THE SCHOOL (3rd ed.).

By Katherine Anne Ommanney. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company; pp. xiv+530. \$5.20.

In contrasting the revised edition of Katherine Anne Ommanney's *Stage and the School* with the recently released third edition, I find myself drawn to the editorial style of the two

books rather than to their tables of contents. At first glance it would appear that the third edition covered much more material than the revised form, but on closer examination one realizes that fundamentally the two editions cover the same general material, and in some instances in a very similar style. It is in those places where the "completely revised form" takes over, however, that the real excitement happens.

The book's contents have been effectively changed somewhat, re-grouping areas that more naturally come together; and the unit on writing and producing the original play has been wisely left for another course. Those who have used *Stage and the School* in its earlier editions will be happy to know that the appendixes, suggested activities and terminology lists have been included in the third edition. This printing is divided into five parts. Each area logically follows the other as the student acquaints himself with the theater and its workings: 1) *Enjoying the Drama*, 2) *Understanding the Drama: Structure of Drama; Varieties of Drama; History of Drama; Shakespearean Drama*, 3) *Interpreting the Drama: Pantomime; Voice and Diction; Acting*, 4) *Producing the Drama: Fundamentals of Play Production; Stage Setting and Lighting; Costume and Make-Up; The Performance and its Evaluation*, and 5) *Motion Pictures, Radio and Television*.

Miss Ommanney has made an extremely fine use of "hundreds" of illustrations. It is in these photographs and drawings, some as current as last year's Academy Awards and Hal Holbrook's make up for *Mark Twain Tonight*, that I feel the flavor and excitement of the theater begins to envelop the reader. Especially noteworthy is the fifteen-page picture essay on the production of *A Touch of the Poet*, from the reading rehearsals to the critics' reviews.

In the preface to the third edition the publishers state that this particular printing is, "designed to make the student feel at home in the theatre—on either side of the footlights." It is my opinion that this effectively written and beautifully edited text does just that. I am convinced that an exciting theatre experience awaits its readers.

WILLIAM D. VALENTINE
Stockbridge (Mich.) High School

IN THE PERIODICALS

Erik Walz, *Editor*

Assisted by: Max Nelson

SPEECH THERAPY

DOOB, DOROTHY and BUCK, JOYCE F. "Medical Orientation for Prospective Speech and Hearing Therapists," *Journal of Rehabilitation*, Vol. 25, No. 6 (Nov.-Dec., 1959), 20-21.

The complexity of speech and hearing disorders makes it highly desirable that a training program for the therapists in this field include medical orientation.

A volunteer program is described in which Hunter College aligns with the Speech Clinic of the Department of Physical Medicine and Rehabilitation at St. Vincent's Hospital.

Some of the semester-end results showed that the student trainees had undergone desirable changes in their attitude and behavior. They were more professional, better groomed, more punctual, poised. There was evidence of a maturing process in their sense of responsibility, growing self-confidence and improved skills in handling people.

It was concluded that a working relationship between a municipal college and a general hospital serving acute cases can be successfully developed, with benefits accruing to both institutions.

BURK, RICHARD D. and ZIMMERMAN, JAMES P. "Serving the Cerebral Palsied Adult," *Journal of Rehabilitation*, Vol. 26, No. 1 (Jan.-Feb., 1960), 7-9.

According to statistics from the Fifty-Eighth Annual Survey of Program Services of United Cerebral Palsy, of 179 affiliates, 41.3% are now providing vocational services and 22% are providing educational services at a secondary level.

The necessity of a program geared to the needs of the teen-age and adult groups is stressed. Considered are the following: Medical Program, Psychologic Aspects, Vocational Aspects, Social Implications and Meeting the Problem.

"Research Needs in Speech Pathology & Audiology," *J. of Speech and Hearing Disorders*, Monograph Supplement 5 (Sept., 1959), 1-78.

This is a special report prepared with support of the United States Office of Vocational Rehabilitation and the Veterans Administration by a Committee on Research of the American Speech & Hearing Association.

Twelve sub-committee reports were made on the following topics:

1. Articulation Problems.
2. Problems of Voice and Speech.
3. Problems of Stuttering and Rate and Fluency.
4. Problems Associated with Cleft Palate.
5. Problems of Aphasia.
6. Problems associated with Cerebral Palsy.
7. Problems associated with Mental Retardation, Delayed Speech and Language Development.
8. Hearing Problems in Children.
9. Hearing Problems in Adults.
10. Hearing Problems in Large Groups.
11. Problems of Basic Research in Speech and Hearing.
12. Problems of Administration in Speech Pathology and Audiology.

There was also a chapter on Summary and Recommendations and an Appendix containing the outline provided Subcommittees to structure discussions and reports.

RALPH, JANE B. "Determinants of Motivation in Speech Therapy," *J. of Speech and Hearing Disorders*, Volume 25, Number 1 (Feb., 1960), 13-17.

The purpose of this paper was to shift the focus from a teacher-centered orientation of motivation to a consideration of certain values and attitudes present in a child's motivation for learning.

Four related studies of achievement motives are discussed. One deals with the effects of early independence training on achievement drive, a second with the influences of power structure within a family on achievement and the third and fourth with the effects of controlled hostility and aggression on school performance.

There is a question of relationship between research findings and clinical practice.

What might be regarded as a child's determination to improve his speech may actually represent a need for approval to enhance his sense of worth or a drive for mastery, or a pattern of affiliating with an authority figure as a means of maintaining security.

In contrast, a child's failure to change his speech may have little to do with wanting to talk better or not, but may be a reflection of a basic motivational pattern. This idea is then developed further.

GOODSTEIN, LEONARD D. "Personality Test Differences in Parents of Children with Cleft Palates," *J. of Speech and Hearing Research*, Vol. 3, No. 1 (March, 1960), 39-43.

This study was concerned with an attempt to relate the adjustment of parents of cleft palate children, as judged from a personality test, to clinical factors including the age of the child, the type of the cleft, the rated social adjustment of the child and each parent's adequacy in handling his child. Ratings of the children were made from a detailed case history based on a clinical interview with one or both parents. Ratings of parental personal adjustment were made on the basis of Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory Profiles which had been obtained from 170 mothers and 157 fathers of children with cleft palates.

In general it was concluded that ratings of parental adjustment were of little help in understanding the parents of children with cleft palates on a theoretical level or in making practical decisions about using these parents in the treatment program.

BENDER, RUTH E. and WHIG, ELIZABETH. "Binaural Hearing Aids for Young Children," *The Volta Review*, Vol. 62, No. 3 (Mar., 1960), 113-115.

During the period of time from June 1959 to January 1960, the Cleveland Hearing and Speech Center has recommended binaural hearing aids for 33 children between the ages of 13 months and 12 years. Reports on these hearing aids after a period of use have been most favorable.

Sixteen of these children were selected for a brief observational study to determine the trends they might show in the use of binaural hearing after a few months.

These were some of the results:

1. Eleven children made observable improvement in social relations.

2. Fourteen showed marked increase in speech or vocalization.

3. Eleven showed specific improvement in articulation.

4. Twelve indicated ability to localize the direction of sound which they were not able to do previously.

5. Ten showed improved ability to identify environmental sounds.

6. Eight were soon promoted in school placement, contrary to previous expectations.

7. Ten children expressed a marked preference for binaural aids, rejecting even a temporary return to their old monaural aids, which they had been wearing happily, sometimes for as long as two years.

In every instance, the parents expressed a decided preference for the use of the binaural aids, both because of the greater convenience and economy of wearing.

JOLLY, FAITH. "Educating the Deaf and Hard of Hearing in Our 50th State," *The Volta Review*, Vol. 62, No. 4, (April, 1960) 158-161.

The educational program in Hawaii for a child with a hearing handicap is described.

The various agencies, personnel and facilities involved in this unified process are discussed.

SORTINI, ADAM J. "To the Parent of a Hearing Handicapped Child," *The Volta Review*, Vol. 62, No. 1, (Jan. 1960), 26-28, 46.

A letter, that is given routinely to every parent of a hearing handicapped child seen at the Children's Medical Center, Boston, is printed in its entirety.

The author explains in very understandable language, the audiometer, audiogram, how the hearing process is measured and suggestions on the use of a hearing aid.

PUBLIC SPEAKING, DISCUSSION, DEBATE

MURPHY, RICHARD. "Adlai E. Stevenson: Part I. Stevenson as Spokesman," *Today's Speech*, Vol. VIII, No. 1 (February, 1960), 3.

A Stevenson symposium was held at the SAES Golden Anniversary Convention in New York. The author has written two articles adapted from the discussions of this symposium. In this issue the importance of Stevenson as a spokes-

man, his development, style and delivery are presented. The relation of Stevenson to his audience will be the subject of Part II.

SCHMIDT, RALPH N. "Unbreakable Rule —," *Today's Speech*, Vol. VIII, No. 1 (Feb. 1960), 8.

"There is only one rule that holds true one hundred per cent of the time in public speaking and that is the rule that there is no rule that holds true one hundred per cent of the time!" With this opening statement the author proceeds to show that a speaker should not hesitate to "go against the rules" when faced with an unusual speaking situation.

WEBER, EARL. "A Critique of a Technique," *Today's Speech*, Vol. VIII, No. 1 (Feb. 1960), 26.

The author presents a critique of Boris Bogoslovsky's "Technique of Controversy." The plan of his critique is to answer partially the following questions: "Why has the problem of a new logic arisen? What is the old logic Bogoslovsky refers to? What is meant by Dynamic Logic? How does Dynamic Logic compare with other modern theories of the process of thinking? What conclusions can be made regarding the applicability of Dynamic Logic?"

LIEBENDORFER, ROBERT. "Mind, Self and Society," *Today's Speech*, Vol. VIII, No. 1 (Feb. 1960), 31.

George H. Mead in his posthumous volume, "Mind, Self and Society" has written about the relationship of speech to the development of mind, self and society. The author presents an analysis of a book which is "of basic importance to all students of personality and of communication."

PUBLIC SPEAKING, DISCUSSION, DEBATE

WILCOX, ROGER P. "Characteristics and Organization of the Oral Technical Report," *General Motors Engineering Journal*, Vol. 6, No. 4 (Oct. Nov. Dec. 1959).

The importance and popularity of the oral technical report as a means of communication is the subject of this article. The writer stresses the difference between this type of report and the written report. Four basic characteristics of the oral report are (1) Special Audience, (2) Limited Scope, (3) Personal Presentation and (4) Instant Understanding. Included in this

article is a check list for the evaluation of an oral technical report.

EDUCATION

BUCK, MCKENZIE. "Helping Children Develop Speech Abilities," *Education*, Vol. 80, No. 8 (April, 1960), 451.

This is an introductory article to the feature section of the April issue of *Education* wherein various problems of speech, as affecting children, are presented. A condensation of each article as arranged in this feature section follows.

SMITH, DAVID WAYNE. "Factors Affecting Speech Development," *Education*, Vol. 80, No. 8 (April 1960), 452.

(1) Preliminaries to Speech, (2) Preparation for Speech and (3) Role of the Environment are the main topics for discussion in this article. The author feels that the development of speech in the child is a "neglected developmental phenomenon." Speech patterns are learned. Therefore, the role of the parent is important. Also, there are factors which interfere in the rate of speech development. They include "physical development, neurological involvements, socio-economic conditions, bilingualism, and unmet emotional needs."

LEWIS, MAURICE S. "Teaching Children To Listen," *Education*, Vol. 80, No. 8 (April, 1960), 455.

The writer feels that more experimental research is needed with regard to the listening process; that there is a need for creative teachers of listening. A useful discussion is presented on the goals of listening, the listening environment and the basic principles of learning.

KRATOVIL, IRMA F. "The Voices of Children," *Education*, Vol. 80, No. 8 (April, 1960), 460.

The following three areas are covered by the author in this article on children's voices: (1) the misuses of the child's voice with special stress laid upon the loud, the soft and the high pitched voice, (2) breathing for speech and (3) meaningful experiences in the classroom such as story telling, reading aloud, creative dramatics and conversation.

TACEY, WILLIAM S. "Co-operative Activities for English and Speech Teachers," *Education*, Vol. 80, No. 8 (April, 1960), 463.

From the days of ancient Egypt and Greece, speech has been a recognized discipline. The writer stresses the importance of speech in our present day educational system and the need for its integration with English. He discusses the principles to be observed when integrating speech with English. In the writer's opinion, "The student needs training in speech skills more than in any other form of communication, for he will need speech at least ten times to every once that he will need to write."

GOTT, SYLVIA and MILISEN, ROBERT. "Functional Articulatory Disorders," *Education*, Vol. 80, No. 8 (April, 1960), 468.

This article stresses the importance for parents, teachers and speech therapists to work together in helping the speech handicapped. Misarticulation problems, methods in correcting poor speech habits and the reinforcement of good speech habits are discussed briefly.

STAHELM, EVELYN M. and GARWOOD, VICTOR. "Needs of Auditorily Handicapped Children," *Education*, Vol. 80, No. 8 (April, 1960), 468.

Acoustic amplification, language development, programs for the education of deaf children and parent participation are discussed by the authors.

STODELLE, ERNESTINE. "Reflections on the 1959 Conference of Creative Teaching of Dance to Children," *Dance Observer*, Vol. 27, No. 5 (May, 1960).

The old style dance school conducted by an autocratic, fully dressed and bejeweled "Madame," has been superseded by the schools of such greats as Martha Graham, Doris Humphrey, Charles Weidman and Hanya Holm. Here is an illuminating article on present day teaching techniques in dance for children. The writer concludes with this thought, "Exactly what kind of dance movements are to be recommended? There is no formula. The teacher must be his own choreographer, creating his own material out of knowledge, insight and inspiration. Is this not what is meant by 'Creative Teaching of Children?'"

CASMIER, FRED L. "Speech in German Universities," *Today's Speech*, Vol. VIII, No. 1 (Feb. 1960), 17.

The author gives a brief account of the teaching of speech in Germany. He does not feel that his findings are conclusive because out of

a questionnaire sent to sixteen universities and colleges only six answered. However, "Their replies," he feels, "are representative of the general picture in Germany as far as academic work in the field of Speech is concerned."

DRAMATICS—ORAL INTERPRETATION

WHITE, THOMAS D. "Indiana University, Bloomington, Indiana," *Dramatics*, Vol. XXXI No. 4, (January, 1960), 14.

This informative article about Indiana University was written to give readers a background for the upcoming Eighth National Dramatic Arts Conference which is being sponsored jointly by the National Thespian Society and the Department of Theatre of Indiana University.

SPARKS, MELBA DAY. "High School Management," *Dramatics*, Vol. XXXI, No. 4 (January, 1960), 16.

According to the author, several years of experimenting and revising went into the organization of a student Theatre Management Staff. As presented in this article, the plan relieves the director "of trying to stretch herself too thin by directing and producing the show, promoting the show, and then supervising the house."

RUBIN, JOEL E. "The Lighting Layout," *Dramatics*, Vol. XXXI, No. 4 (January, 1960), 20.

Lighting layout is defined as a "plan of the stage that shows the electrical circuiting for the stage lighting, and also the locating of the various lighting instruments." Eleven basic elements in a lighting layout are described by the author with two diagrams aiding in the explanation. This article is directed specifically for a typical secondary school theatre.

MAY, MARJORIE DAY. "Playmakers, Unlimited," *Dramatics* Vol. XXXI, No. 5 (Feb. 1960), 14.

Three approaches to original playwriting are outlined. The benefits and values of such a project with high school students are deemed inestimable by the author. In this way the student is able to participate in a really creative experience.

NILES, DORIS. "Cooperation and Obedience," *Dramatics*, Vol. XXXI, No. 6 (March, 1960), 13.

A critical evaluation of high school drama is made by the author. In her opinion, "You can't have high school theatre without cooperation." She proceeds to enumerate every department in her high school and tells how they all cooperate.

TRUMBO, CHARLES R. and POLLYANN. "The Very Little Theatre," *Dramatics*, Vol. XXXI, No. 6 (March, 1960), 21.

This is another in a series of short articles on community theatres in the United States. The Very Little Theatre was founded in Eugene, Oregon. It is a strictly amateur group. They have no professional director. At least five productions a year are produced. Each production is directed by some member of the organization.

BRIGGS, F. ALLEN. "When Do We Begin Teaching Beatnik Poetry," *The English Journal*, Vol. XLIX, No. 5 (May, 1960), 311.

Professor Briggs of Sal Ross State College, Alpine, Texas has this to say in answer to the above title: "It is quite possible that Beatnik should not be taught, but my sympathy goes out to those poor literature haters who have been taught Shakespeare; both should be used as materials for learning. Seen from this utilitarian view, it is possible that as a tool of living, twentieth century Beat has as great a claim for attention as Elizabethan English."

L. M. "Revolutions in Elizabethan Staging," *The Shakespeare Newsletter*, Vol. X, No. 2 (April, 1960), 14.

Comments and impressions on various Elizabethan stagings as produced at Stratford, Ontario; Antioch College, and Oregon may be found in this article.

ROBERTSON, RODERICK. "Producing Playreadings," *Educational Theatre Journal*, Vol. XII, No. 1, (March, 1960), 20.

Several suggestions are offered to the director of playreadings. These suggestions cover the choice of plays, methods of staging, seating arrangement, use of music stands, setting, narration and music.

BLADOW, ELMER L. "A New Pigment Binder," *Educational Theatre Journal*, Vol. XII, No. 1, (March, 1960), 24.

The writer calls attention to the fact that DuPont has manufactured a new binder called

Elvanol. This is a satisfactory substitute for the old style brown glue, gelatin glue and dextrine. Directions for preparing Elvanol are given. This article should be of value to all technical directors.

LEWIS, ROBERT. "A Point of View and a Place to Practice It," *Theatre Arts*, Vol. XLIV, No. 4, (April, 1960).

Robert Lewis from his experiences with the Group Theatre of the 1930's discusses the problems of establishing a permanent theatre in America.

RADIO, FILM, TELEVISION

CARPENTER, MELVIN C. "Tapes Meet Multiple Class Needs in Small Schools," *Educational Screen and Audiovisual*, Vol. 39, No. 5 (May, 1960), 220.

The Catskill Area Project in Small School Design aims "to search for educational theories, techniques and practices that will help rural schools improve the variety and quality of educational opportunity provided for girls and boys." This article reports on one area concerned with more effective teaching-learning situations in multiple classes.

GREENE, MARJORIE. "Robert Bresson," *Film Quarterly*, Vol. XIII No. 3 (Spring, 1960), 4.

"Robert Bresson has been acclaimed as the greatest living master of cinema; he has also been accused of practicing a kind of mystic anticinema. His reputation, in any case, is world wide." The author analyzes Bresson, the man, and his films. The article is an interesting study of Bresson's methods in film making.

HOBGOOD, B. M. "From Flickers to Art," *Dramatics*, Vol. XXXI, No. 4 (January, 1960), 17.

The author has managed to capture the excitement and high points of the motion picture industry as it developed from earliest beginnings in the 1870's to the present day masters of film making.

HOBGOOD, B. M. "The Director Makes the Movie," *Dramatics*, Vol. XXXI, No. 5 (February, 1960), 15.

The directors' problems on a typical shooting day are many and varied. With his camera man the director will consult on the kinds of shots, position of the camera, lighting effects, and spe-

cific scheduling. In addition, consultations with sound engineer, property man, technical advisor and script writer are necessary. The director's final responsibility is editing and processing the film.

HOBGOOD, B. M. "Broadcasting: The Casual Audience," *Dramatics*, Vol. XXXI, No. 6 (March, 1960), 20.

Quality in radio broadcasting seems to be overwhelmed by mediocrity according to the author. He proceeds to analyze this dilemma by a study of the radio audience which he terms the "casual audience," one that is unselective, inattentive and unobservant.

POGGI, GIANFRANCO. "Luchino Visconti and the Italian Cinema," *Film Quarterly*, Vol. XIII, No. 3 (Spring, 1960), 11.

Three films, *Osessione*, *La Terra Trema*, and *Senso*, directed by Luchino Visconti, rank among the top postwar Italian films. Not much has been written about Visconti and his importance as a director. The writer attempts to make an assessment of Visconti's place in the development of the Italian film.

SAMPLE, WILLIAM D. "Do They Really Listen to Radio?" *Today's Speech*, Vol. VIII, No. 1 (February, 1960), 15.

With the emergence of TV, network radio has gone into a decline because it has forgotten how to stimulate the listeners imagination. The writer believes that through creative experimentation, short programs can be developed which will require the listener to use his imagination.

SNIVELY, PEARL C. "Tape Recorded Teaching at Hagerstown," *Educational Screen and Audiovisual Guide*, Vol. 39, No. 5 (May, 1960), 226.

This report is presented by one of the 28 studio teachers actively involved in the experimental television project at Hagerstown, Maryland. It is a critical but enthusiastic evaluation of her experiences in this important educational project.

STOCKMAN, VERNE, MOLER, DONALD, LISTER, JAMES. "AV Materials in Guidance," *Educational Screen and Audiovisual*, Vol. 39, No. 5 (May, 1960), 220.

This article deals with the question, "Have audio-visual directors recognized the growing importance of the use of audio-visual materials in the field of guidance?" The following headings are discussed at length as uses in the field of guidance: Motion Pictures; Bulletin Boards; Charts, Graphs and Posters; Filmstrips, Slides and Photographs; Fieldtrips; Tape Recorder; The Opaque Projector; and the Overhead Transparency Projector.

AUDIO-VISUAL AIDS

Jon Hopkins, *Editor*

LANGUAGE IN ACTION. 13 kinescope films. Featuring Dr. S. I. Hayakawa. 30 minutes each. Sound. Black & White. NET Film Service. Indiana University, Bloomington, Indiana. Purchase: \$125. Rental: \$5.25.

"TALKING OURSELVES INTO TROUBLE"

The kinescope *Talking Ourselves into Trouble* should be seen by every adult viewer of television. It should be a "must" for both college and high school students.

In this kinescope, originally prepared for Television KQED, San Francisco, Prof. S. I. Hayakawa presents personally some of the important ideas he develops at much greater length in his books *Language in Thought and Action*, and *Language, Meaning, and Maturity*. An old pro at communication, Hayakawa does a superb job before the camera.

The theme of the film is stated at the beginning in a quotation from a German scholar: "The limits of my language are the limits of my world." Hayakawa points out that in grammar we study the relation of words to other words to make meaning in sentences. In logic we study the relationship of sentences to each other. In semantics we study speech and its relationship to events. In general semantics we study the speaker, the speech, the hearer, and the speech object, and the inter-relationships of each of these to the other and to the whole. Thus in a clear introduction Hayakawa opens up the field of general semantics to those unfamiliar with it.

In talking to others, what is important is the words we use when we talk to ourselves. Students were confused about which side stood for what in the Spanish Revolutionary War because of such terms as "government," "loyalists," "socialists," and "reds"; and "Franco," "nationalists," "fascists," and "rebels." These words had for the students the meanings they had when they talked to themselves.

We have "trigger reactions" or "single reactions" to such words as "labor union," "lawyer," "capitalist," "negro," "communist." The meanings we give them are those we give the words when we talk to ourselves. But such single

reactions limit our worlds because they limit meaning to one possibility. In fact, prejudices usually grow from single reactions. To illustrate the causation of single reactions, Hayakawa uses Irving Lee's case of the pike in the aquarium.

Next, Hayakawa diagrams on a blackboard the two-valued system. This is dichotomizing: everything is all black or all white, all good or all bad. The world of far too many Americans is greatly limited because they are confined within a two-valued system.

In concluding, Hayakawa tells the story of a farmer who rang a bell when he fed his chickens. When it came time to market them, he again rang the bell and they came running eagerly to get their heads chopped off. In this complex world around us we are surrounded by linguistic bells. Students not only need to increase their vocabularies, but for their vocabularies they need an entire repertory of responses—an *infinite*-valued pattern of possible reactions—to enable them to cope with life as it is today.

The camera work and the sound track in this kinescope are excellent. As we have said, Hayakawa's presentation is superb. Two puppets which introduce certain ideas are purest corn of the lowest grade and would irritate even young high school students. The producer should have left Hayakawa to his own devices. But this is of minor importance. The film should attract many people to Hayakawa's books—as it was designed to do—and to perform this good office it deserves the widest circulation possible.

BENSON S. ALLEMAN
Bellarmine College
Louisville, Kentucky

"WHAT IS LANGUAGE"

This is the third in a series of films entitled, "The Language In Action," designed to introduce one to the field of general semantics, and featuring Dr. S. I. Hayakawa as film narrator or lecturer.

The essential method of presentation here is lecture, broken occasionally for purposes of illustration of Dr. Hayakawa's remarks by

means of conversational pieces on the part of two puppet assistants. In addition, the lecture method is supplemented by blackboard and some audio illustration. The puppetry, although novel and attention-getting, is an asset to the film's illustrative procedures only to the extent that the puppet characters can be understood. For that matter, a majority of the students to whom I showed this film thought the sound quality is one of its major drawbacks. Although using a pleasant, conversational manner, there are times, too, when Dr. Hayakawa's lecture technique is indirect and time-consuming. In fact, there are two or three places in the film where the general development of the idea seems a little slow.

The content of the film is quite introductory in nature. Hayakawa is saying that every language is a system of its own. Language is not just names and words but systems of names and words, and meaning occurs as a result of the particular point of view with which one approaches the words used. It is this framework in which the words are used that completes or fully establishes the validity of a statement. In illustration, Hayakawa gives examples from a number of different language systems, although many of these are quite common. There is a good emphasis, however, on the relationship between meaning achieved and conflicts which may or may not result between individuals and societies. Hayakawa contends that we may often find ourselves in the position of replying to arguments which have never been set forth. We assume too quickly that we know what others mean, though failing to fully understand the system in which the statement is made. At the close of the film, Hayakawa calls attention to some of the more well-known sources of information about the general semantics discipline. The intellectual level was somewhat elementary for college viewing, but perhaps appropriate for the high school audience.

In short, the film sets forth a good introduction to the study of general semantics. Its primary shortcomings have to do with technical aspects, especially in relation to sound and some lack of communication and conciseness of address on the part of the narrator. Assuming a good acoustical situation for viewing it, I would recommend the film for those making their initial contact with the field of general semantics.

W. BROCK BRENTLINGER
Greenville (Ill.) College

"HIDING BEHIND THE DICTIONARY"

This film, part of the *Language in Action* series, features S. I. Hayakawa and two nameless puppets. The puppets, one a pedantic professor and the other a decidedly unpedantic student, argue from time to time about the nature and use of the dictionary. The long intervals between their verbal clashes are taken up with a lecture by Hayakawa, who usually settles the argument in favor of the student.

Hayakawa explains briefly (too briefly to be very clear or meaningful) how dictionaries are compiled. He then stresses four main points: (1) the "writer of a dictionary is a historian," whose function is to report, not dictate, usage; (2) people should reduce their dependence on the dictionary by examining the verbal and physical contexts in which new words appear; (3) inasmuch as dictionaries can define words only by using other words, they are fundamentally guilty of circularity of definition; (4) words, in addition to having simple meanings, have connotations and even "precise" meanings change with time. Ultra-purists and anti-general semanticists will be unhappy with some of these views (though their hostility might be lessened by Hayakawa's final reminder to the student that, despite their limitations, dictionaries are valuable); but most teachers will like the sane view of language which the film expresses.

More's the pity, then, that the presentation is so weak. A film, to justify itself, ought to make a point more forcefully than either a classroom teacher or textbook author can. This film does not. The film is little more than a routine lecture; and Professor Hayakawa has some unfortunate delivery mannerisms, such as playing with a pack of note-cards, which hinder his effectiveness. The technical work is weak: the puppets' conversation is sometimes unintelligible, the background is distracting, and objects which ought to be completely off-camera are often only partially so. The puppets are cute, though.

RONALD F. REID
Purdue University
and

ROBERT C. JEFFREY
Indiana University

"THE TASK OF THE LISTENER"

"The Task of the Listener," a part of a series called "Language in Action," is a well-produced, entertainingly educational film. Making use of hand puppets, blackboard diagrams, explanation, and examples, the lecturer, Dr. S. I. Hayakawa, clarifies some fun-

damental principles surrounding an act of communication.

The presentation begins with the consideration of the question: Why are some communications rejected and others accepted? Dr. Hayakawa suggests that at least a portion of the answer may be found in the desire of the human organism to "protect, maintain and enhance-the-self concept." He explains how individuals become rigid and nonreceptive when there is a threat, either real or assumed, to this concept. This rigidity then can cause the situation to deteriorate into a "communicative deadlock." After diagramming this deterioration, Hayakawa demonstrates how "non-evaluative listening" by both parties can re-establish communication. In this way the threats to the self concepts of both the speaker and the listener are removed.

The idea is clearly made that a speaker should never become so preoccupied with getting his point across that he fails to respond to the needs, attitudes and feelings of his listeners. When he does respond, he understands his listeners better, they understand him and his message better and the communication becomes an enriching experience for both.

While I am sure that the title may lead many to expect a more typical treatment of the role of the listener in the communicative process, they will find the content significant and practical. It has a clear application in any college or industrial course in which the improvement of speaking and listening effectiveness is an objective. The problem and its solution are not new; however, they are presented in a fresh, enlightening and effective manner. The film is well worth the class time its showing would consume.

BERNARD F. PHELPS
Miami (Ohio) University

"HOW WE KNOW WHAT WE KNOW"

This film on general semantics is another in a series entitled *Language in Action*. Professor Hayakawa is concerned with the perplexing problem of "how" people know as opposed to how they ought to know it.

Professor Hayakawa concentrates on the ladder of abstractions—not from his book *Language in Action*—from Korzybski's *Science and Sanity*. (A semanticist can no more avoid Holy Writ than the Old Professor can avoid Aristotle.) The ladder of abstractions appears to be one of several ways for describing the human penchant for rushing to inaccurate conclusions from the faulty perception of the evidence. This

is illustrated in the reactions of two puppets (one a low brow and one a professor) to the actions of an elderly gentlemen who is writing a book on philosophy. In these low comedy disputes the film seems to be talking down to undergraduates who have no business being undergraduates in the first place.

The ladder of abstractions is pursued further to illustrate how our reactions to an object or an experience are determined by our previous experiences. Thus a chemist and a physicist will describe an apple differently, and a moralist and a tax collector will have different reactions to the leading abstraction on the ladder, a race horse called Snow Plow. Thus different people arrive at different conclusions, and they congratulate themselves for having the "facts." They have no facts at all, only faulty or partial perceptions of an event or an object. Here Professor Hayakawa stresses *fact* as an ambiguous term without any simple or unambiguous definition. This is all very well, but perhaps *fact* does not represent anything concrete even if it is a noun. *Fact* is a characteristic. Thus we ought not to be dismayed when the moralist and the tax collector draw different conclusions about Snow Plow. Moral and economic facts are, unhappily, different. That a chemist and a physicist describe an apple in different (though not contradictory) terminology illustrates that chemical and nuclear terminology differ. If the two disagree as to the variety of the apple they may call in a botanist whose terminology will be far different.

This film seems appropriate for the persuasion class. The instructor who shows this film will find that he has a manageable introduction to general semantics with adequate opportunities for elaboration.

DAVID W. SHEPHARD
Ball State Teachers College
Muncie, Indiana

"THE LANGUAGE OF ADVERTISING"

S. I. Hayakawa does not accuse all advertisers of being anti-semantic because some of his best friends are institutional advertisements.

In Program 9 of what was a television broadcast series ("Language in Action") from the magic number of programs (13), Hayakawa deals plainly and sometimes eloquently with "The Language of Advertising." He links, appropriately, the language of poetry and of advertising because "both express a preference." It may not be merely quibbling to note that the similarities which he so deftly develops may

stem more from the need of poets of *express* through affective language and of advertisers to *communicate* (gain specific responses) through use of the same affective language.

The TV professor's criticism of advertising is that much of it promotes semantic disorder (and destroys for us today the value of good poetry). But he points out that, like the poet laureate of other times, the advertising copy writer sometimes rises above the narrow assignment of singing the praises of his sponsor. Hayakawa's evaluation of the use of language with emotional appeal is a most succinct statement of the interactions of emotion, logical and personal proofs: "Unless language has emotional appeal, it is useless. . . . What is important is whether or not things happen [logical] as promised [personal]."

Adaptation of principles of general semantics is made most appropriately for a general TV audience. He depends a great deal upon the striking example and very little on the Korzybski glossary.

There are production faults which may be more distracting to the critic than to the normal consumer: telegraphing of cues, apparent constant reliance on notes, a pair of puppets who interrupt rather than facilitate the development of ideas. The reviewer at least projected and at best accurately perceived that Dr. Hayakawa, too, felt unnecessarily interrupted in his communicative efforts by this "chorus."

The event of the kinescope seems to threaten us with a deluge of pieces of communication intended for one audience but assumed to be equally effective with another. We need to be wary of this flood. No immediate classroom use of this particular film comes to mind. The reviewer's seminar in "Persuasion" found it mildly interesting and contributing of no new concepts and, in one case, at least, contributing of some minor confusion. But if one may generalize from the isolated 1/13th being considered here, it would seem most appropriate to have other commercial TV audiences benefit from the series in much the same way that the San Francisco audiences did. This is to say, then, that for its originally intended purpose, this is a good piece of communication that should be used again and again to serve that same purpose.

PAUL D. HOLTZMAN
The Pennsylvania State University

"HOW TO SAY WHAT YOU MEAN"

The message of this film-lecture can be stated briefly. Since language makes human behavior possible (differentiating man from animals), humans characteristically translate their experiences into words. Consequently, the problem of understanding what others mean is one of understanding their experiences, of getting behind their words. One is not surprised, therefore, at Professor Hayakawa's answer to the question in the film title: To say what you mean you must first be a good observer and listener; to be understood, you must first understand.

This message seems appropriate for the uninitiated student; it certainly will come as no revelation to the initiated, nor was it meant to. But the message outlined above may well be lost without prior exposure to Hayakawa's manner of presenting his material. He employs a variety of rhetorical devices, for example, including quotations from Aldous Huxley, Suzanne Langer, and Anatol Rapoport; quickly-drawn blackboard diagrams; and, of course, the Chessé puppets, which provide his transitions and comic relief. Indeed, the rather raucous repartee of the puppets stands in dramatic contrast to the esoteric (and lengthy) statements from Langer's *Philosophy in a New Key*. In short, while I doubt that a student's attention would often lag, I wonder whether he would know what Hayakawa means at every turn, a query that may be serious, given the title of the film.

This is not essentially a "how to" film, but rather a broad, background analysis of why specific skills are needed. The approach is much broader and more embellished, for example, than that of Irving Lee's "Talking Sense" series, and therefore leaves to the teacher the problem of actually answering the question raised. Insofar as this approach fits the needs of the classroom, however, whether as a source of motivation or as an introduction to questions that need to be asked, "How to Say What You Mean" can be of value to the teacher of oral (or written) communication.

PARKE G. BURGESS
Northwestern University

THE BULLETIN BOARD

Ordean G. Ness, *Editor*

CONFERENCES, CONVENTIONS, FESTIVALS, INSTITUTES, AND WORKSHOPS

The 1960 Annual Meeting of the Alexander Graham Bell Association for the Deaf was held in Rochester, New York, June 26 to July 1. The program included discussion of recreation programs, rehabilitation programs, curriculum, parent education, multiple-handicapped children and aphasia. Mrs. Fitzhugh Boggs, of the National Association for Retarded Children, was a featured speaker on the subject, "Establishing a Parents' Organization." Also on the program were discussions by a panel of parents. New officers of the Association included: Dr. George T. Pratt, principal of Clarke School for the Deaf, president; Dr. Helen Schick Lane, principal of Central Institute for the Deaf, first vice president; Mrs. Spencer Tracy, director of the John Tracy Clinic, second vice president; Dr. June Miller, University of Kansas Medical Center, secretary; Hilleary Hoskinson, Washington, treasurer; and Dr. Eldon Eagles, University of Pittsburgh School of Public Health, and Alice Streng, University of Wisconsin, Milwaukee, members of the board.

Northwestern University held the following special programs during the Summer Session of 1960:

The 30th National High School Institute in Speech, with 201 students and 40 faculty members, June 26-July 30. There were 92 debaters, 86 drama students, and 23 in radio-television-film. Karl F. Robinson again directed the program.

A Symposium in the Interpretation of American Folk Literature, June 21-August 13. Walter Blair, Alice Marriott, and Studs Terkel were guest lecturers. Wallace Bacon and Robert Breen of the Department of Interpretation and Janet Bolton, visiting professor from the University of Southern California, conducted the program.

A Series of Special Lectures in Rehabilitation in Communicative Disorders including the following guest lecturers: Elizabeth Crosby, Professor Emeritus of Neurology, University of Michi-

gan; Grant Fairbanks, Professor of Speech, University of Illinois; Leslie Hohman, Professor of Psychiatry, Duke University School of Medicine; Dorothy Lee, Anthropologist, Merrill-Palmer School, Detroit; Werner Leopold, Professor of German and Linguistics, Northwestern University; Robert Mercer, Head, Department of Pediatrics, The Cleveland Clinic; Bradley Pat-ten, Professor Emeritus of Anatomy, University of Michigan; Frank Pirricello, Assistant Professor of Oral Surgery, Northwestern University Medical School; Samuel Pruzansky, Associate Professor of Orthodontia, University of Illinois; Hildred Schuell, Clinical Associate Professor of Neurology, University of Minnesota; Ray Snider, Professor of Anatomy, Northwestern University Medical School; and Oscar Sugar, Professor of Neurological Surgery, University of Illinois.

A Symposium in Broadcasting and Public Opinion, June 21-August 13. Directed by Martin Maloney, the program included guest lecturers Norman Thomas; William Hedges, Vice-president, NBC, in charge of convention broadcasting; Peter Rossi, Director, National Opinion Research Center; Marshall McLuhan, Ford Seminar on Culture and Communication; Sam Brightman, Democratic National Committee; and Hal Short, Republican National Committee.

The annual convention, tournament and Congress of Human Events of the Southern Speech Association was held in Winston-Salem, North Carolina, April 3 to 8.

Summer activities at the University of Michigan included weekly colloquia in each of the speech areas to give advanced students the opportunity to hear members of the faculty and visiting lecturers discuss research studies in speech. On July 7, the Department of Speech sponsored a conference for teachers of speech on both the high school and college levels.

The annual convention of the Washington State Speech Association was held April 22 and 23 on the campus of Washington State Uni-

versity, Pullman. The theme of the convention was "Speech 1960: Our Needs, Our Abilities," and the keynote address was delivered by Professor Harold Crain of San Jose State College. Officers for 1960 are: Laurence W. Brewster, Western Washington College, president; Dominic LaRusso, University of Washington, vice-president; Martha Yorkston, Everett Junior College, secretary; and Paul Rosser, Seattle Pacific College, treasurer.

The 1961 convention will be held on the campus of Western Washington College, Bellingham, April 14 and 15.

CURRICULA AND FACILITIES DEVELOPMENTS

Florida State University is preparing a Ph.D. level program in mass communications, an inter-divisional major in Radio-TV, involving the Department of Speech, the School of Education, the School of Business, the School of Music, and the Department of English. Professor Bernarr Cooper is the Speech Department's representative on the planning committee. A graduate level course called "Analysis and Application of Techniques for Broadcasting" has been instituted to integrate the "Television in the Classroom" course work of the School of Education with practicum studio work, and to encourage leaders in the State to think of the radio and TV media as part of the all-over "living theatre" tradition.

At Central Missouri State College (Warrensburg), graduate programs leading to the M.A. and the M.S. in Education are nearing final approval. Graduate offerings for speech majors at C.M.S.C. will be available for the fall term of 1960-61. The Department of Speech will have openings for graduate assistants in basic public speaking, radio or television, drama, speech correction, and forensics.

The Speech and Drama Department of the University of Nevada moved into its section of the new Fine Arts Building this past summer. The building is a million dollar structure housing the departments of Speech and Drama, Music, and Art. In the Speech wing there is a large proscenium-type stage, with adjoining shop, rehearsal hall—experimental theatre, dressing rooms, control booth, box-office, costume, scenery and prop storage space, and an intimate, continentally arranged auditorium seating 275. Also, there will be a "Reader's

Theatre," a forensics seminar room, and two large rooms especially designed and equipped for work in speech correction. Space has also been allowed for television production work.

Beginning with the 1960 Summer Session, the Marquette University School of Speech is offering a new summer sequence and a new series of workshops and institutes. A major feature of the program is that it solves one of the major problems confronting summer school students, particularly religious. This program is so scheduled that it will enable students working for a Master's degree to complete their course work in five successive summers with complete assurance that there will be enough offerings to give all of the essential background together with good area coverage of the field. Each summer there will be offered in each of the areas of speech both a primarily "content" course and a "practicum" or laboratory course. Professor Alfred J. Sokolnicki is over-all coordinator for the Speech School summer programs.

In addition to the regular sequence of courses, there is offered each summer a series of afternoon institutes and workshops of particular interest to teachers. The 1960 workshops included Parliamentary Procedure, Coaching Debate, The Class Play, Speech Correction for the Classroom Teacher, and Television for Teachers.

The College of Letters and Science of the University of Wisconsin has announced the inauguration of a General Honors Program and the awarding of Sophomore Honors and of the degrees B.A. with Honors and B.S. with Honors. The program will begin for freshmen and sophomores in the fall semester of 1960-61 and for juniors and seniors in the fall semester of 1961-62. The College will supplement its regular program with Honors Courses through four types of classes: new courses, completely separate sections of existing courses, special laboratory and discussion sections attached to present courses, and individual tutorials. All classes will be small and will provide more direct and personal instruction. The Department of Speech has planned "H" courses for undergraduates for 1960-61.

FORENSICS

Plans for the Tenth Annual National Contest in Public Discussion are now underway. The length of the discussions will be twenty-five

minutes, and the topic will be the one chosen as the national question by the forensic directors. The deadline for filing a declaration of entry will be November 15, and the tapes should be ready for shipping by December 1. Those desiring full information should write to Dr. Jack Arnold, University of Illinois, Navy Pier, Chicago 11.

Los Angeles State College won the Ninth Annual Contest, with San Francisco State College second and Stetson University third. The finals of the 1960 event formed a sectional meeting of the Central States Speech Association Convention. Nineteen colleges and universities participated, and the three final tapes had survived sectional and semifinal judging. A sidelight on the contest this year is that it was the second consecutive victory for coach Howard Holladay, who had won the preceding year at Fresno State College. James East directed the second-place group, and Mary Louise Gehring was faculty sponsor for the program from Stetson University. Dr. Wayne N. Thompson, the originator of the contest and its national sponsor for nine years, has turned over the coordination of the program to Dr. Arnold.

The success of the first year of Hawaii State Speech League activities clearly established the desirability of such a program in Hawaii. Well over 1500 individual student speech performances took place during the 1959-60 school year. There were many interschool meets and all eleven public and fourteen private high schools on Oahu participated in the major festival held at the University of Hawaii on January 30. Mr. Wesley Hervey, Pacific Speech Association vice president and Supervisor of Speech Therapy at the University, was in charge of the festival. Organizations sponsoring the high school speech activities are the Pacific Speech Association, the University of Hawaii Department of Speech and the State Department of Public Instruction. Dr. Orland S. Leforge was League chairman during the past year and will continue to serve as chairman in 1960-61.

Spring semester, 1960, was marked by heavy forensics activity at the University of Hawaii. The student Board of Debate and Forensics with the cooperation of the Department of Speech sponsored the program. In addition, the second annual Inter-collegiate Speech Tournament was held on the University campus. Eight colleges from the mainland participated, to-

gether with four schools from the Islands. Dr. Donald Klopff was chairman of the Faculty Committee on Forensics and advised students on the year's activities.

A new student speech organization, the Michigan Forensic Guild, has been formed in the University's Speech Department. The establishment of this student club is an indication of renewed interest in public speaking and debating by students on campus. Guild members, in addition to participating in campus debate demonstrations and radio discussions, cooperate with the Department in sponsoring special intercollegiate events which are added to Michigan's regular intercollegiate speech schedule. Such events this past year included a debate with the University of Toronto and with Harvard University.

ON STAGE

At San Jose State College: Spring, 1960, bill included Shaw's *Candida*, directed by Paul W. Davee; Ionesco's *Bald Soprano* and Lorca's *Love of Don Perlimplin*, directed by Jack Neeson; an English version of Puccini's *La Boheme*, directed by Mr. Neeson, with Edwin Dunning as conductor; and Pirandello's *Right You Are*, directed by Elizabeth Loeffler.

At Florida State University: The first Asolo Festival, held in the Asolo Theatre of the Ringling Museum, Sarasota, Florida, included presentations of Sheridan's *The Rivals*, Moliere's *The Ridiculous Ladies* with a Commedia dell'Arte Scenario, *The Beggar's Opera*, Goldoni's *The Servant of Two Masters*, and Etherege's *The Man of Mode*. The Festival is co-sponsored by the FSU Department of Speech and the John and Mable Ringling Museum of Art. Constructed in the palace of Queen Catherine Cornaro in Asolo, Italy in 1798, the Asolo Theatre was purchased by the State of Florida and moved to the Ringling Museum in Sarasota in 1951. It is the only 18th century Venetian Theatre in the United States. Browning is thought to have been a regular spectator during his stay in Asolo and Eleanore Duse probably acted on its stage. The staff for the 1960 Festival included Arthur H. Dorlag, director, Charles I. Reimer, technical director, L. Eberle Thomas, assistant director, Catherine A. Means, costumer, and William E. King, stage manager.

At Mississippi State College for Women: Commemorating its 75th anniversary, the College presented, on April 1 and 2, a pageant, *Across*

the *Years*, written by Dr. Donnis Martin and Dr. Gladys Martin, and directed by Frances M. Bailey.

At Southwest Missouri State College: The 1959-60 bill included: *The Diary of Anne Frank*; an all-school variety show, *Folio Follies '59*, directed by Robert K. Gilmore; *Rumpelstiltskin*, in a tour of area schools, directed by Mr. Gilmore; *Finian's Rainbow*, produced by the Speech, Art, Music and Physical Education Departments; and two series of Workshop Plays. Dr. Leslie Irene Coger directed the drama productions.

At the University of Nebraska: The University Theatre has announced a National Playwriting Contest for 1960-61. An award of \$200 will be given to the author of the script given First Place, when the play has been accepted for performance in University Theatre. In addition, a travel grant of \$100 will be awarded. Manuscripts for the current contest were due July 30. Inquiries about the contest can be addressed to the Play Contest Committee, University Theatre, University of Nebraska, 12th and R Streets, Lincoln, Nebraska.

At the University of Nevada: The 1959-60 bill included: *The Curious Savage* and *The Glass Menagerie*, under the supervision of Charles Metten. The Children's Theatre, directed by William C. Miller, presented *Aladdin and his Wonderful Lamp*.

The University's Speech and Drama Department will officially open the new University Theatre (described in "Facilities" earlier in this column) in October with the first production in a series paying tribute to the American theatre. Plays scheduled for 1960-61 include: *Ah, Wilderness!*, *The Rivalry*, *Our Town*, *The Male Animal*, and "Three for Tonight," consisting of *Aria da Capo*, *Waiting for Lefty*, and *If Men Played Cards as Women Do*. The Children's Theatre will produce *Tom Sawyer*, and the Reader's Theatre will present a staged reading of *Marco Millions*.

At Brooklyn College: The Vance Morton Theatre Festival, held February 25 to 28, featured productions by six Brooklyn high schools and a Varsity Players production of *The Critic*.

At the College of Wooster: 1959-60 productions included premiere performances of *The Peacock in the Parlor*, with book by James Allardice, music by James Wise, and lyrics by Tom Adair, and *The Sign of Jonah*, a religious drama for our day by an East German Lutheran pastor, Guenter Rutenborn.

At the University of Oregon: The Festival of Arts celebration at the University featured the Arts of the Theatre this past February. Coincidentally, the Northwest Drama Conference was held on campus with Kenneth Macgowan, Samuel Selden, Mordecai Gorelik and Morris Carnovsky giving the principal addresses. Horace Robinson, director of the University Theatre, was chairman of both events.

At the University of Washington: The Readers Workshop of the Department of Speech, under the direction of Dr. Wilma H. Grimes, presented three Reading Hours this past year: Strindberg's *Erik XIV*, Stephen Crane's *The Open Boat*, and Maxwell Anderson's *Barefoot in Athens*.

At Western Washington College of Education: The 1959-60 season included *The Wild Duck* and *Where's Charley*, directed by W. A. Gregory, and *The Bald Soprano* and *The Lesson*, directed by Keith Michael.

At West Virginia University: The first annual Festival of the Fine and Lively Arts included several activities sponsored by the Department of Speech. With the School of Music, the Department produced *South Pacific*, under the direction of Sam Boyd, Jr. *Night of Assassins* (The Lincoln Tragedy) was presented in reading form under the direction of Enid Pallant and Leonard Davis, with assistance from the Orchesis Dance Group. Lawrence Carra, of the Carnegie Institute of Technology, lectured on "The Nature of the Theatre in the Family of Fine Arts." A stage design exhibition was prepared by the Department of Speech. And a three-day High School Drama Festival and Forensic Tournament was held on campus. The Festival took place from March 1 to April 3.

ON THE AIR AND SCREEN

At Northwestern University: The Midwest Program on Airborne Television Instruction is scheduled to begin telecasting courses into schools in six midwestern states in February, 1961. To help school officials, teachers, PTA representatives, and others prepare for the programs, a one-week Workshop was offered at Northwestern University during the past summer. The Workshop was designed to acquaint leaders with the plans of the Program, to provide training in the use of televised instruction in the classroom, to give information on equipment needs and costs for schools. A fundamental purpose of the total project in Airborne Tele-

vision is to explore ways of improving the quality of education.

At the University of Michigan: The Radio-TV area of the Speech Department will be experimenting with new educational uses of a revolutionary type of closed circuit camera recently developed by the Argus Camera Division of Sylvania Electric Products. The new camera requires no auxiliary equipment but can be attached to any television receiver, and operates at normal room light levels. It requires no engineering attention while in operation. Members of the Department will use it in classes in TV production and performance, and will experiment with its potential as a teaching aid in public address and oral interpretation courses.

The University of Michigan Television has added a videotape recorder to its Ann Arbor facilities. Early in November, the Broadcasting Services Television Office began to record its educational programs on videotape. Tapes are either distributed directly to stations equipped with videotape recorders, or used to produce kinescope films. The University uses its recorder to prepare programs for a 23-station network spread from New York to Seattle.

Under the direction of Professor Garnet R. Garrison of the Speech Department, the English Language Institute is now using a camera and giant TV screen for instruction. Purchased with a grant from the Ford Foundation, this new equipment increases opportunities for teachers to observe an actual class being taught. The University's Medical Center color TV recently completed its first year of operation, providing instruction for interns and medical students. Two other closed circuit TV operations provide students with training in TV programs, some of which are distributed to the University kinescope network.

Members of the Michigan Speech Department played over 38 different roles in the University TV Series "Legacy." The series attempts to capture, through the media of drama, song, dance, sculpture and music, the cultural traditions which the world has inherited. Beginning with the initial program, "Athens 5 B.C.," and ending with the production "20th Century: Legacy for Tomorrow," Speech Department personnel played roles ranging from Hippocrates to Babbit.

At the University of Nevada: The University Theatre Great Film Series for 1960-61 will include such films as *Long Voyage Home*, *Death*

of a Salesman, *On the Waterfront*, *A Night at the Opera*, and *Nanook of the North*.

At Ohio University: Funds have been granted by the U. S. Office of Education under the provisions of Title VII of the National Defense Education Act for the purpose of evaluating the program analyzer and film as methods for training television teachers. F. Craig Johnson is the chief investigator with Edward Penson and Elizabeth Andersch serving as associate investigator and education coordinator respectively. The project will be conducted from February 1, 1960 to May 1, 1961, at a total cost of \$57,600.

At the University of Oregon: John R. Shepherd reports that the study of Educational Television Resistance (a three-year study being conducted under a Title VII grant) is progressing according to schedule. Pilot studies are now underway, with the first wave of the field survey having begun in late March.

The University studios have originated a new telecourse, produced in conjunction with the School of Music, and designed to teach certain principles of music for the non-college viewer.

A report on the first two years of an experiment in inter-institutional teaching by television in the state of Oregon has been published. For further information contact Glenn Starlin, Director of Inter-institutional Teaching and Chairman, Department of Speech, University of Oregon.

At the University of Wisconsin: State Radio Listeners, Inc., the citizens organization dedicated to the support of the state broadcasting service, has embarked on an expanded program of lending FM radio receivers to build listenership to the state stations. FM-only receivers have been purchased and spotted in various communities of the state to be circulated by members in those areas, to potential listeners. Each receiver is imprinted with information about the program service. By this sampling process listeners are encouraged to acquire FM receivers for themselves.

The following is quoted from the AETA TV Project "Newsletter," edited by George Q. Quenzel of Emerson College: "The Television Project of the American Educational Theatre Association is devoted to an exploration of the values and uses of television in the educational theatre, as a means of direct teaching, as a visual aid, as a medium for the performing art of the theatre, as a means of communicating emotional and intellectual concepts relating to

theatre, as a discipline in itself, and to many more diverse and important goals. . . . Within the framework and purposes of the AETA we wish to investigate various needs, uses, and values pertaining to television, to establish liaison with individuals and organizations having a common interest in television, and to present such services to the field as are within our capacity."

One of the current investigations of the Project group is the compilation of existing visual aids on the techniques of the medium of television itself. Professors Edward Stasheff and Verne Weber of the University of Michigan are serving as principal investigators.

The first listing of the Television Script Service (another of the Project's endeavors) was sent out to approximately sixty interested departments and educational stations last fall. Summaries of four non-commercial, but educational plays, screened by the committee, were included. The TV Script Service committee is seeking more play summaries for consideration for a second listing to be distributed shortly. Anyone having scripts or students with scripts may send summaries (not scripts) to any member of the committee: Ernest G. Bormann, University of Minnesota, Minneapolis; Warren E. Sherlock, 625B West Mission, Santa Barbara, California; John Ehle, University of North Carolina, Chapel Hill; Robert L. Hilliard, Adelphi College, Garden City, New York. Anyone wishing to be placed on the mailing list for the play summaries may write to Dr. Hilliard.

Ernest DiGiovanni, North High School, Valley Stream, Long Island, New York, is conducting a new investigation to determine what, if any, special relationships and services the TV Project should develop in terms of the secondary school.

IN THE CLINICS

During the past summer session at the University of Michigan, in addition to the regular clinical programs, the Speech Clinic added a special therapy program for young cleft palate patients. The program was supported by the Michigan Crippled Children's Commission.

Professor M. E. Wingate, of the University of Washington Department of Speech, is currently undertaking to gather some data on former stutterers. There are a number of individuals who were stutterers as children and who have stopped stuttering; whether they "over-

came" it, "grew out of it" or "lost" it is not known. Professor Wingate feels that such research would add much to our knowledge about the general field of stuttering. He needs help in locating former stutterers and would much appreciate being contacted by any such persons who would be willing to participate in the research. Participation would only involve responding to a relatively short questionnaire. Such individuals may write to M. E. Wingate, Speech and Hearing Clinic, 1320 Campus Parkway, Seattle 5, Washington.

PROMOTIONS

Louise Binder Scott, Los Angeles State College, to Associate Professor.

John P. Hoshor, University of Hawaii, to Professor.

Mrs. Sumie McCabe, University of Hawaii, to Assistant Professor.

Winston L. Brembeck, University of Wisconsin, to Professor.

Claude S. Hayes, University of Wisconsin, to Associate Professor.

FACULTY ADDITIONS AND APPOINTMENTS

At Orange County State College (Fullerton, California): James D. Young, associate professor in drama and theatre; Lee Granell, instructor and director of forensics.

At Cornell University: Thomas M. Scheidel.

At Western Washington College of Education: Harry E. Stiver, Jr., and Kenneth C. Lyman, assistant professors of speech.

At the University of Wisconsin: Lois Nelson, instructor, in speech correction.

At Northwestern University: Kenneth L. Brown, instructor in speech education.

PERSONALS

From Orange County State College, Fullerton, California: Mrs. Verna Breinholt, consultant in speech education for Orange County Schools, will teach on a part time basis at the College and aid in the development of work in speech correction and audiology . . . Dr. Seth A. Fessenden, Head of the Department of Speech, has been appointed Chairman of the Division of Communication which will encompass the work in speech, speech correction and audiology, theatre, radio, television, English composition, and journalism.

From the University of Hawaii: Recent con-

tributors to the *Honolulu Star-Bulletin's* regular column, "Professor's Notebook," were Dr. Elizabeth Carr, writing on Hawaiian dialect, and Dr. John P. Hoshor, who discussed semantics . . . Mrs. Sumie McCabe has served this past year as Acting Foreign Student Advisor and will serve as Director of the 1960 Fullbright Orientation Center . . . Kathleen Secord Scott has been appointed speech curriculum director for the 1960 Fullbright Orientation Center . . .

From the University of Illinois Chicago Undergraduate Division: Dr. Wayne N. Thompson, professor and head of the speech staff, was on sabbatical leave during the second semester of 1959-60 academic year. He did research on the topic, "Aristotle's Theory of Communication."

From Louisiana State University: Dr. Douglas Ehninger of the University of Florida was the visiting lecturer for the 26th Annual Conference on Speech Education June 14 to 23.

From the University of Michigan: Professor Edward Stasheff participated in the National Seminar sponsored by the Television Radio and Film Commission of the Methodist Church in Nashville, Tennessee.

From Wayne State University: Dr. Rupert L. Cortright, professor of speech, was awarded the 1960 Alumni Faculty Service Award at the 16th Annual Honors Convocation of the University last May. The award to Professor Cortright was presented by Elmore E. Pollock, a director of the Wayne State University Alumni Association. A combined faculty and alumni committee made the selection. The citation reads, in part: "As a distinguished educator, a recognized author, an active churchman, an effective consultant, and a popular lecturer, Dr. Cortright has brought to a wide audience the awareness of the role of Wayne State University in the State of Michigan."

From the University of Minnesota, Duluth: Dr. Robert Haakenson, formerly head of the Department of Speech, has joined the Department of Public Relations, Smith Kline & French Laboratories, Philadelphia, in the position of Manager of Community Education. In this capacity he will organize and administer a Speaker's Bureau for the firm. One hundred and eight Professional Service Representatives have been trained in the nationwide speaking program and as many as three hundred more may be added. Participating as consultants in the recent expansion of the program were Dr. Gale Richards, University of Southern California, and Dr. Robert Crawford, Queens Col-

lege . . . Dr. Haakenson was succeeded as Head of the Duluth Department by Dr. Robert F. Pierce, Director of the Speech and Hearing Clinic.

From the University of Nevada: Charles Metten was awarded his Ph.D. degree in Speech and Dramatic Art by the State University of Iowa. Metten is now an assistant professor at the University and Director of the University Theatre . . . Roland Ellmore, formerly of Washington State, is now an instructor at Nevada and is director of the television and radio program.

From Brooklyn College: Professor Eldon Elder was one of the thirty-two recipients of the recent awards by the Ford Foundation "to assist talented persons from several branches of the arts." His project is the designing of a 2,000 seat outdoor theatre . . . Professor John K. Duffy has been designated as Fullbright Lecturer in Audiology at the University of Bombay.

From the New York City Public Schools: Dr. Louise Gurren has been appointed Director of the Bureau for Speech Improvement. She succeeds to the position formerly held by Letitia Raubicheck.

From the University of Oregon: The National University Extension Association meeting with SAA in Washington last December presented a certificate of merit to Nelson Heath Meriwether at their banquet in the Lafayette Hotel. The certificate cited Mr. Meriwether's service to education through publishing the Association's discussion and debate manual, the *Educational Theatre Journal*, *Speech Monographs* and the *Speech Teacher*. Bower Aly, chairman of the dinner, made the presentation on behalf of the Association.

From the University of Washington: During the fall quarter of 1960, Professor Albert L. Franzke will be in Europe where he will study the internal functioning of labor unions in Western Germany and the role of Organized Labor in the German economy . . . Professor Dominic A. LaRusso spent the summer of 1960 in Italy researching in the area of his special interest, medieval rhetoric . . . At the last convention of the Western Speech Association, Dr. Thomas R. Nilsen was designated editor-elect of *Western Speech*.

From Western Washington College of Education: W. A. Gregory has resigned his position at Western Washington to become managing director of the Vanguard Repertory Theater in Detroit.

From Marquette University: The School of Speech honored five of its alumni at a recent honors dinner attended by speech students and faculty. Chosen by the executive committee of the School for its first alumni awards were: Dr. James W. Cleary, assistant professor of speech at the University of Wisconsin; Tom Lambert, program director of Station WISN, Milwaukee; Thad F. Parusynski, speech therapist in Milwaukee public schools; Robert E. Petrie, supervising producer-director of Station WTMJ-TV, Milwaukee; and Louis W. Staudenmaier, president of the Stephenson National Bank of Mariette, Wisconsin. Dr. Hugo Hellman, director of the School of Speech, presented the awards.

From the University of Wisconsin: James Cleary, assistant professor of speech, was one of two recipients of the 1960 Kiekhover Teaching Awards. These \$1,000 awards are made annually to recognize outstanding teachers among the young faculty members of the University . . . Carrie Rasmussen taught at a speech workshop sponsored by the Tulsa Public Schools and the University of Tulsa from May 31 to June 11. Last summer she was on the staff of Drury College, Springfield, Missouri.

IN MEMORIAM

Lee Emerson Bassett

Lee Emerson Bassett was a central figure in the development of speech education in America. As a teacher and administrator at Stanford University, as a speaker and reader throughout the western states, as president of the Speech Association of America and founder and charter member of the Western Speech Association and the California Speech Arts Association, his influence extended throughout all areas of speech education.

His activities from the time he came to Stanford University in 1901 until he retired from the university in 1938 reflect the progress in speech education taking place in American colleges. As the only instructor of speech, paid by fees assessed the students, Mr. Bassett began his teaching career by offering four courses. When he retired as professor emeritus, the speech department under his leadership offered fifty-five courses and had increased to a faculty of eighteen.

In 1903, as a member of the English department, he found it necessary to ask permission of Mrs. Jane Stanford to build an Elizabethan

set on the platform of the assembly hall in order to produce the play *Knight of the Burning Pestle*. Fifty years later in the spacious Memorial Hall the Stanford Players produced again the same play dedicated to Professor Lee Emerson Bassett.

As he saw a need for new courses, Professor Bassett added them. In his education at the Cummock School of Oratory in Los Angeles and at Curry School of Expression in Boston, he had never had a formal course in public speaking, yet the idea came to him that it would be more valuable to stand before a group and state one's own ideas than to memorize an oration given by someone else many years before. A magazine article at this time, 1911, commented that "Stanford was turning her attention to a type of address in keeping with modern scientific thought and temperament."

In 1917, Mr. Bassett wrote a book based on his lectures in his courses in oral interpretation, *A Handbook of Oral Reading*. He had dropped the old mechanics of Rush-Murdock and emphasized thought and feeling in oral reading. For twenty years students throughout the country studied oral expression from this book.

A student who heard Professor Bassett give an address wrote "After an intensive study of Bassett's *Handbook* we had imagined the author as being some beetle-browed and awesome master, but we are agreeably surprised to find that Professor Bassett was, after all, a real man and an interesting one at that." And in summing up Professor Bassett's life as an educator, one is impressed with the realization that the true objective of all his work was to lead others to a finer, fuller life. It is true that he was an excellent teacher; he read and spoke brilliantly; his style of writing was clear and vivid. His distinction, however, lies in the fact that his emphasis was on the development of the individual. To him, oral reading was important because it made great literature come to life with all its cultural and humanizing effects. He often expressed this belief: "Literature comes into its own when it comes into the life of a person as a refreshing, restoring, joy giving experience . . . helps him to discover himself, calls forth his finer qualities, broadens his interests, makes him more human." By giving insight into life through literature he developed in his students tolerance and broadmindedness.

Wherever he taught, wherever he spoke, there was no mistaking his belief in the individual

and in the spiritual values of life. He expressed again and again his affirmation of those beliefs:

"The better part of life is found in the exercise of the affections and sympathies, in wonder, humor, and love of beauty and in the free

play of imagination and spirit. These are the qualities that distinguish man from lower forms, and in the development of these is life made normal and wholesome and rich."

CELIA DENUES

San Jose City College

